

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

DECEMBER, 1931

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From The Blue Teapot by Alice Dalgliesh.

Courtesy of The Macmillan Company.

Illustrated by Hildegarð Woodward.

There they saw the lighted Christmas Tree

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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Fallacious Arguments Regarding Ability Grouping

ARTHUR S. OTIS

Editor of Tests and Mathematics, World Book Company, Yonkers, New York

IN his article "Homogeneous Grouping of Pupils" in the March, 1930, number of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, Dr. J. R. McGaughy of Columbia University presents a series of arguments against so-called "homogeneous grouping" which are interesting as an exhibition of a certain type of fallacious reasoning. These arguments are of the type one might expect from a lawyer bent on confusing the issue and diverting the minds of the jury from the main question.

In this article it is our purpose not primarily to show that ability grouping is necessarily desirable but primarily to show that the arguments used by McGaughy in his attempt to prove the opposite are fallacious and that, so far as his arguments are concerned, it is entirely possible that the opposite of what he contends is true.

MEANING OF HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

By "homogeneous grouping" or ability grouping is meant the separation of the pupils of a grade who are found to be

of unequal learning ability into two or more groups for instruction purposes, so that the pupils of each group are more nearly equal in learning ability than the grade as a whole.

The grouping may be on the basis of intelligence test scores, or IQ's, or achievement test scores, or teachers' judgments, or any combination of these.

The causes of unequal learning ability may be unequal heredity, unequal previous training, unequal health, differences in emotional states, or any other cause whatsoever.

The different groups may be taught by the same teacher as separate classes or by different teachers.

This grouping may be inflexible and hold for all subjects or it may be flexible and be different for different subjects. Educationally, the more flexible the grouping the better, of course, for a boy who has difficulty in language, for example, may perhaps learn arithmetic quite easily. There are, of course, administrative difficulties in the way of

flexible grouping, but they are not insurmountable.

THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE OF GROUPING

Before examining the arguments against "grouping" advanced by Dr. McGaughy let us set down the fundamental principle of "homogeneous grouping" as understood by those who have discovered its virtues.

1. Suppose we have two hypothetical classes A and B in arithmetic. Suppose that Class A is a heterogeneous group; that is, there are some pupils who are very quick to learn arithmetic and some who learn very slowly. Suppose that Class B is a homogeneous group; that is, the pupils all have about the same ability to learn. In Class A we will find that the teacher must gear her instruction either too fast for the slow pupils or too slow for the bright ones. If the majority of pupils are bright pupils, the slow pupils naturally fail to understand the work and fall behind, become discouraged, and acquire the habit of failure. If the majority of the pupils are dull pupils, the bright pupils have to sit by and waste time while the teacher gives repeated or extended instruction to the dull pupils. They naturally become impatient, perhaps mischievous, and are likely to develop habits of loafing.

In Class B the teacher can gear her instruction to the average ability of the group and there is much less occasion for any pupil to fail to understand or for any pupil to waste time waiting for others to understand what he has learned. (Remember we are now comparing a hypothetical truly homogeneous group with a heterogeneous one.)

If the homogeneous group is a bright group, it is possible for the teacher to cover the ground more rapidly than otherwise and thus have extra time for enriching the curriculum for these pupils, either by taking up topics that could not otherwise be studied or by going more

deeply into those topics that are taught.

If the group is a dull group, the teacher should use a special technique—one designed particularly for dull pupils which would not be at all needed for bright pupils.

In other words, the instruction may be suited more nearly to the individual needs of the pupils.

From the foregoing considerations, the obvious inference is that the homogeneous class is preferable because

(a) it is easier for the teacher

(b) it conserves time on the part of pupils

(c) it tends to avoid the formation of habits of failure or habits of loafing, and

(d) it enables the teacher to adapt the instruction more nearly to the needs and capabilities of the pupils.

The same applies of course to a class in reading or any other subject.

Now let us be clear about this: All classes do not fall into one or the other of just two categories. We do not have just two kinds of classes "mixed" (bright, normal, and dull together) and "unmixed" (all of the same ability to learn). We have classes that vary all the way from the kind in which there are both very bright and very dull pupils to the kind in which the pupils all have very much of the same ability to learn.

Here, then, is a fundamental principle of "grouping."

Other things being equal, the more nearly homogeneous the ability of the pupils of a class is to learn the subject which they are being taught, the better.

THE ARGUMENTS AGAINST GROUPING

Let us now consider in the light of the above principle the critic's six arguments against "homogeneous grouping." These are briefly as follows:

1. It does not respect the personality of the pupil.

2. It is artificial.

3. It should be accompanied by differentiated instruction but is not.

4. Dull pupils become conscious of their inferiority.

5. There is no such thing as homogeneous grouping!

6. Individual needs are neglected.

We will consider these carefully, one at a time.

THE FIRST ARGUMENT

The first "argument against homogeneous grouping" is that it does not "respect personality" in that those "who do not have the kind of ability which makes it possible for them to master quickly and well the minimum essentials of the formal school subjects" are allowed to be "stigmatized as dullards or 'dumbbells'."

The argument seems to imply that normal and bright pupils are usually not conscious of the inferiority of dull pupils who are right in their midst, who fail before their eyes to answer the teacher's questions or give foolish answers, and who fail of promotion.

Any observing person who has ever taught children knows that the inferiority of duller pupils is perfectly obvious to the brighter pupils who see and hear their every difficulty and failure.

It is not because the pupils were put in a separate class that they are known to be slow. It is because their slowness was continuously thrust upon the brighter pupils when they were all in the same class.

On the other hand, if a group of slow pupils is made up at the beginning of the year and their instruction given them by themselves—out of the hearing of the brighter pupils—and they are merely known to be *succeeding* at what they are doing and are promoted to a similar class in the grade above, there is *far less* probability of the bright pupils in the school being conscious of the inferiority of the pupils in the slow class.

And as the contact of the bright pupils with the slow ones fades away into the past, the consciousness will naturally tend to grow less and less.

Unless, of course, the school itself commits the *unpardonable blunder* of stigmatizing the slow class by an inappropriate name.

The matter of reducing the consciousness of the differences in ability in classes is merely one of thoughtfulness and a little ingenuity and tact on the part of the administrator.

If any administrator is so tactless (not to say foolish) as to advertise a dull group in a manner that naturally results in stigmatizing the pupils, he deserves to fail. The fault lies with him and his poor judgment, not with ability grouping as such.

Actual experience shows that if ability grouping is handled tactfully, parents may even come and urge that their children be transferred to another class where the work will be better suited to the particular ability of the pupils.

To argue that ability grouping is undesirable because the effect is sometimes spoiled by bungling is about like arguing that because an auto repairman sometimes bungles a repair job, therefore auto repairing is undesirable or that because carelessness sometimes results in a perfectly good cake being scorched or burned, therefore making cakes is undesirable and should be condemned.

Perhaps the critic means that when the slower pupils are treated courteously and respectfully homogeneous grouping is advantageous, but that if a school makes the thoughtless mistake of allowing the slow pupils to be "stigmatized as dumbbells" the evil consequences of this mistake may counterbalance the good of the homogeneous grouping. *But that is not what he says.* That would be the truth and no one would dispute it.

What the critic should condemn is thoughtlessness or ignorance in naming or advertising the slower classes, not the creation of the classes.

THE SECOND ARGUMENT

The critic's second argument is a protest that homogeneous grouping is "arti-

ficial" and that adults and children outside of school are never organized into groups as in homogeneous classes in school. (He says "on the basis of pencil-and-paper tests." But of course we are not talking about *how* the grouping is done. If a particular test does not sort out the dull pupils and the bright ones for a particular subject of instruction, that is the fault of the test and not of the grouping.)

The question is: Do individuals in life out of school tend to divide themselves into homogeneous groups in any activity?

Let us suppose the members of a mountain club decide on a certain Saturday to climb Mt. What-Not, and have lunch at the top. They start out 50 or 100 strong. Before long the energetic ones are getting a little ahead and are soon around the bend ahead of the others. They forge on. Certain of the others begin to "notice the altitude" and decide that discretion is the better part of whatever it would be in that case and sit down, saying to the rest: "You go on and we'll meet you at the top later."

Has the reader ever climbed a mountain in a party of 50, all keeping together?

Take a tennis club on a Saturday afternoon. On one court will be four good players; on another four medium players; on another four poor players. A good player will wait half an hour for others of his ability to come along before he will join three mediocre players. And a poor player generally knows enough not to ask to play with good players.

They are all friends and there is no snobbishness about it—just a natural common understanding. They all go to the same club dance and root for the same team.

And so may the bright, normal, and slow pupils in a school be friends and go to the same parties and root for the same team. But as for progressing at different rates according to their ability, there is nothing in the least artificial or undemocratic about it.

In sports we divide contestants into

"heavyweight, lightweight, etc., professional and amateur, major league and minor league, Class A contestant, Class B contestant, etc."

Obviously we need not devote any more space to showing that homogeneous grouping in life out of school is one of the most natural of phenomena.

And it wouldn't matter if it weren't!

The world progresses by adopting new ways of doing things. What we are looking for is efficiency, not conformity. But as it happens, homogeneous grouping is perfectly natural.

This argument then turns out to be, if anything, an argument for ability grouping.

THE THIRD ARGUMENT

The third argument is presented so intangibly that it is difficult to formulate logically, but it seems to be this: If differentiated instruction is desirable for pupils of different abilities, "it must follow that the teaching of each group should be a highly specialized job" but that "teachers dislike to teach the slower pupils" and "feel that it is sort of a disgrace" and that "as a result there has been little specializing in the teaching of special groups."

This is certainly a peculiar line of reasoning. Let us analyze it carefully and see what sort of argument it is.

First of all, if we boil the "argument" down it reads this way: If homogeneous grouping is a good thing, we should derive the most possible benefit from it, but for a certain reason we are not deriving the most benefit from it, therefore it is a bad thing!

This is like saying that if exercise, fresh air, and sunshine are beneficial to health, we should so conduct ourselves as to derive the greatest possible benefit from them that we can. But we do not so conduct ourselves as to get the greatest benefit from them, therefore exercise, fresh air, and sunshine should be avoided!

You will notice that in the course of the argument the critic makes the sweeping

assertion that "teachers dislike to teach slow pupils."

If all the teachers of a school are teaching mixed classes (those in which bright, normal, and dull pupils are taught together), obviously every teacher must be teaching dull pupils whereas if the pupils are grouped into bright, normal, and dull classes, it follows that only part of the teachers are teaching dull pupils.

Moreover when a teacher teaches bright, normal, and dull pupils in the same class, she very frequently finds that after the bright pupils have understood what she has taught, the dull pupils still need more explanation, and after the brighter pupils have obtained mastery and are ready to go on to another topic, the duller pupils still need more practice. She must take time to give the duller pupils this additional explanation or practice while the brighter ones do "busy work" or waste time fidgeting or developing habits of laziness. It there is one thing that wears down a teacher and makes her hair turn gray, it is trying to teach one set of pupils while another set fidgets.

However, when bright, normal, and dull pupils are taught in separate classes, there is much less occasion for a teacher to have to give some pupils attention while others waste time. Hence to the extent that "teachers dislike to teach dull pupils" there is a decided advantage in favor of grouping.

However the fact of the matter is that the general statement "teachers dislike to teach dull pupils" (when these pupils are segregated) is simply untrue. Indeed many teachers take special courses in order to be permitted to teach special classes for dull pupils. It would be correct perhaps to say that "some teachers dislike to teach dull pupils" (when the dull pupils are segregated). If we were to seek the cause in such instances, we would be quite likely to find that the principal is making the mistake of expecting just as much in the way of achievement from the dull group as from the

brighter groups, or he is in some way responsible himself for making the teacher feel that it is "sort of a disgrace" to have to teach the slower pupils.

Summarizing so far, the teaching of dull pupils in a mixed group is far more difficult than the teaching of dull pupils in a segregated group. And if teachers dislike to teach dull pupils in a segregated group, it is not the fault of the segregation but because of some stigma which has been improperly attached to such teaching. Just because some teachers for some reason dislike to teach dull pupils, is certainly no reason why teachers who do enjoy working with dull pupils when these are segregated should not be permitted to do so. Obviously we have here no argument whatsoever against ability grouping.

Just a word about that portion of the argument which reads: "as a result there has been little specialization in the teaching of the special groups."

To be sure, many teachers of homogeneous groups have *not yet* learned how to present their instruction in the manner best adapted to the abilities of their pupils. However, other teachers have progressed far along this line. And some schools are offering curricula quite well differentiated for pupils of different abilities.

But let us remember that even if the very same subject matter were presented in the very same way to a dull class as to a normal one but with repetition enough so that the dull pupils understood the explanation when otherwise they would not, and with practice periods long enough so that the dull pupils attained mastery when otherwise they would not — this alone would be "differentiation" enough to make grouping very much worth while. And it would be a poor school in which dull pupils had been placed in a separate class if the teacher, having no bright pupils in her class to annoy her with their impatience to make progress, were not permitted to go slowly enough so that the

pupils could succeed at what they were doing rather than fail.

In other words, even failure to purposely accompany ability grouping with differentiated instruction is no argument against ability grouping as such.

The critic's argument is fallacious, then, because:

(1) Teaching dull pupils in a mixed group is much more difficult than teaching them in a homogeneous group.

(2) The general statement that teachers dislike to teach dull pupils is not true.

(3) When teachers dislike to teach dull pupils it is generally the fault of the school administration.

(4) Even if there were no planned differentiation of instruction to accompany the grouping, the grouping would still be worth while.

THE FOURTH ARGUMENT

The critic's "fourth argument against homogeneous grouping" is that: "Certainly many of these (dull) children learn to think of themselves as definitely inferior to other children" and that bright pupils "tend to develop into a smart aristocracy." The critic says: "This is undoubtedly one of the strongest arguments against segregating school pupils into homogeneous groups."

Let us consider two cases.

John and Fred are two dull children. John is in a class with normal and bright pupils. The instruction is geared to the normal pupils. John frequently fails to understand a new process (in arithmetic, let us say) when the teacher gives the explanation but the majority of the class understand it and sometimes the teacher does not notice that John did not understand and sometimes she does not have time to explain it as thoroughly as he would have to have it explained. The result is that the class goes on drilling and applying and further understanding the process while John flounders a while, then gives up. The teacher calls on him, but in his bewilderment a flock of hands are

waving in the air and this alone is enough to prevent him from doing any real thinking.

The teacher, of course, must frequently take John by himself, or with a few others like him, and spend extra time giving him individual help. This may go on for a year or two but the time will come when John is so far behind the average of the class that sufficient individual help is impossible and he must be allowed to sit and ponder about his lack of ability while the class moves on.

Now we ask the reader: Is there anything in the world better calculated to give a pupil an "inferiority complex" than that?

On the other hand, there is Fred who is known to be dull. His parents have been informed that since he and some other pupils have been having such a hard time with school work, the school has provided a class where Fred and the others can have special help so that he need no longer fail. The parents are delighted, and Fred finds that when the teacher explains something she always takes enough time to make sure that he and the others understand. He finds that he gets enough practice on each step or topic to really master it before beginning another, and with each new success he gains more confidence with which to attack the next problem.

He finds that the whole class is progressing at approximately the same rate (assuming that the group is truly homogeneous). (He may not know how this rate compares with that of other classes—it may appear to be the same superficially but actually the curriculum may comprise the minimum essentials in one class and contain enrichment in another. All this hinges in part on the thoughtfulness and ingenuity of the school management.)

The main thing that Fred knows is that *he is succeeding*, and even if he found he had accomplished less than a pupil in another class, this fact is to him negligible

in comparison to the fact that *he* is *succeeding*.

This "argument" of the critic "is undoubtedly one of the strongest arguments" for ability grouping that there is.

We might similarly compare two bright boys, one of whom always finds himself finished with his work among the first, with time on his hands in which to contemplate his superiority over the less fortunate members of the (heterogeneous) class, and the other of whom finds that it keeps him working at his maximum ability to be above the median of his (homogeneous) class. Even this boy may not know how much more he is accomplishing than the pupils of some other section.

We know from experience that it is the first of these bright boys and not the second who is most likely to become snobish.

THE FIFTH ARGUMENT

The critic's "fifth argument in opposition to homogeneous grouping" is put forth as "the most important of all." It is that "there is not and cannot be such a thing as a truly 'homogeneous group.'"

We are reminded of the woman whose three defence arguments in reply to the charge of having broken a kettle that was loaned her by a neighbor were:

- (1) It was not broken when I returned it.
- (2) It was broken when I got it.
- (3) I never borrowed the kettle.

The critic devotes three columns of his article to proving that it is impossible to have a class of pupils that is absolutely homogeneous. (Of course every intelligent and enlightened teacher and administrator knows this.) But the interesting part is that this is put forth as an "argument in opposition to homogeneous grouping."

What kind of logic is that? Here are more samples.

There is no such thing as absolutely pure drinking water in a city reservoir. Therefore we should oppose the use of

pure drinking water!

There is no such thing as getting the pupils of a school system all free from physical defects. Therefore we should oppose the correction of physical defects!

It is impossible to get pupils to sing a note together on exactly the same pitch. Therefore we should oppose concerted singing.

It is impossible for all the pupils in a grade to be at the same level of achievement at the same time. Therefore we should abolish grading altogether!

Need we say more?

As part of the critic's fifth argument he shows that the same pupil who is slow in one subject may not be slow in another. Hence, if an inflexible grouping is made for all subjects, there may be a pupil in the slow group, for example, who for a particular subject would better be in the normal group, or vice versa.

Of course enlightened administrators know that there is not perfect correlation between abilities in the several subjects. This has been the finding of every investigation of the correlation of special abilities ever reported, besides being apparent to the casual observer.

However, these researches have shown that, while there is not perfect correlation between abilities in the different subjects, there is nevertheless some correlation. That is, there is a tendency for the pupil who is good in arithmetic to be good in reading, and vice versa, for the pupil who is poor in history to be poor in literature also, etc.

This means then that even an inflexible grouping will result in the pupils being somewhat more alike in ability in any subject, though not as much alike as is possible if a special grouping can be arranged for a given subject.

It follows then (1) that the benefits of "homogeneous grouping" may be attained only in part by an inflexible grouping and (2) that, if possible, the grouping should not be inflexible but should be different for different subjects. Of course this may not

often be possible under ordinary circumstances, for administrative reasons. So the only question is whether some benefit is better than no benefit.

The obvious answer is yes; that is, of itself *the mere fact that an inflexible grouping does not result in as great homogeneity of ability as otherwise is no argument against homogeneous grouping.*

Half a loaf is better than none. The critic virtually says: Better starve than take half a loaf.

The reader should note particularly that the critic's arguments are all "arguments against homogeneous grouping." They are not arguments against accompanying homogeneous grouping with discourteous treatment of slow pupils. They are not statements that the benefit to be derived from homogeneous grouping unaccompanied by differentiated instruction is not as great as that to be derived from homogeneous grouping accompanied by differentiated instruction by special trained teachers.

He does not say that the less the homogeneity of a group, the less the benefit from homogeneity.

His arguments are all "*arguments against homogeneous grouping.*"

THE SIXTH ARGUMENT

The final argument against grouping is that "it makes it easy and almost necessary for the teachers of these groups to neglect and disregard the individual pupil."

The critic's argument is that if a teacher has been burdened for years with the task of trying to adapt her instruction to bright, normal, and dull pupils all in the same class, and you relieve her of this burden by giving her a class of pupils who are of so nearly the same ability that she can adapt her instruction to the needs of all with very little effort, she is likely to forget how great pupils in general do differ—forget what a hard time she once had with mixed classes!

We have heard it said that a dog has to

have fleas so that he will know he is a dog. But it is not necessary that a teacher be forever annoyed with the inconvenience of trying to keep bright and dull pupils going at the same rate in order to know that she is a teacher.

Of course the teacher of a dull group does actually learn to think in terms of dull pupils' ability — she can't help it. And that is one of the ways in which she is enabled to adapt her instruction better to the needs of the dull pupils.

Obviously, the more homogeneous the group in ability, the less the difficulty in keeping the group together and the less the concern of the teacher over individual differences.

With group instruction there will always be some difference between the abilities of pupils in a group. There will frequently be times when certain pupils in the group have understood a presentation and others have not. John will have learned to subtract with borrowing when Fred has not. John will have his answers right and Fred will have his answers wrong.

Now the argument seems to be that if the teacher knows John and Fred made scores on an intelligence test some time in the past which were near enough so that it was thought best to put them in the same arithmetic class, she will "*forget*" that Fred got his answers wrong and pay no attention to him!

If a teacher pays attention to who is succeeding and who is failing in her class she will naturally look after individual differences regardless of how such and such pupils happened to be assigned to her and if she does not, certainly it will not help matters to give her a mixed group.

After all, then, the ease with which instruction can be adapted to individual differences in "homogeneous" groups is the very feature that makes grouping so advantageous.

PUPILS GROUP THEMSELVES

The interesting thing about this matter of grouping is that if you give an intelligent teacher a class of pupils of widely varying abilities and say, "Here are some pupils. Go ahead and teach them," and come back four weeks later, you will find that she has "just naturally" sorted them into groups—at least two. If you ask why, she will say, "Well, at first I treated them all alike. But I soon found that these pupils were learning and those were not, so I naturally let these go on and gave those more explanation and drill. You can't keep these pupils all together to save your life. I really didn't group them. They grouped themselves."

And so it is. You can say what you will about ability grouping but whether the dull pupils of a grade are in the same class with the bright ones or not, *the teacher has to treat them more or less as a separate group* in order to get anywhere with them.

The same is true with the bright pupils except that it is possible for a teacher to let the bright pupils loaf without this being as noticeable as to let the dull ones fail.

The point is *there is no such thing as effective teaching of unselected pupils without ability grouping of one kind or another* whether it be done scientifically by means of teachers' judgments made in the light of standardized test scores and past records of achievement, or whether it be done in desperation by a teacher after a vain attempt to treat the pupils all alike.

The critic's final shot is that "A fair percentage of the world's outstanding artists would undoubtedly have been classed in the 'Z' groups in school if the sorting had been done on the basis of the scores achieved on pencil and paper tests," whereas teachers of music and art "feel justified in taking it for granted that no one of these 'dumbbells' can be expected to have any genuine ability or interest

in these subjects."

First of all just what scientific investigation has revealed the fact that a fair percentage of the world's outstanding artists would have been among the dumbbells when they were in school? This sounds to us to be not only an entirely gratuitous remark absolutely unsupported by any scientific evidence whatsoever but a positive insult to the world's outstanding artists. Probably some misguided persons thought that Ignace Paderewski knew nothing of any thing but music until they awoke to find that in a crisis he had paused in his musical career to be Premier of Poland.

However, the question before the house is not with regard to homogeneous grouping on the basis of "pencil and paper tests" but *homogeneous grouping*. And if a teacher finds that a pupil cannot learn arithmetic or any other subject well enough to progress with an ordinary class, it would not make a particle of difference if the individual was destined to become a world's outstanding artist. He should be given the opportunity nevertheless to work in a class with others of his ability in order that he might succeed rather than fail in these subjects which were difficult for him. Indeed if the grouping can be done by subjects, it would mean that so far as music or art is concerned, those pupils who are especially talented in these subjects would get special attention which might even bring out the latent ability of some geniuses who would remain otherwise undiscovered. In other words, ability grouping in music and art might actually discover and create more world's outstanding artists.

Summing up, then, we find that so far as any of the critic's "arguments" to the contrary are concerned: Ability grouping best enables the teacher to "respect the personality" of the pupil. It is in accord with common practice of adults to classify themselves in life. It immeasurably lightens the teacher's burdens. It makes dull pupils less conscious of their

dullness and enables the capability of brighter pupils to be better brought out. And most important of all, it enables dull pupils to *succeed* though the goal be a lesser one, rather than *fail* because the standard is set too high.

We have shown, then, that each and every "argument against homogeneous grouping" put forth by the critic was either fallacious, irrelevant, or a strong argument for homogeneous grouping.

What true statements the critic makes in his "arguments against homogeneous grouping" are for the most part *cautions against improper technique*. They are arguments against going about grouping in wrong ways and treating the pupils in wrong ways after they are grouped. If he would properly label his arguments as "arguments in favor of proper technique in grouping" instead of "arguments against grouping," the article would have considerable value.

Fortunately, one individual cannot sweep back the tide, and the movement for homogeneous grouping which has been growing steadily for a decade or more, the value of which is appreciated by thousands of new educationists every year,

will undoubtedly continue to grow, more or less oblivious of the fears and doubts of the occasional individual who may have heard of some schools making a wrong start.

A man once wrote a book purporting to prove that we live on the inside of a hollow sphere and that the apparent relative movements of the stars and sun were illusory. But astronomers went right on measuring star distances and otherwise probing the universe. We don't know that they even bothered to comment on it.

On the other hand, the Comptons and Michelsons and Shapleys are showing other astronomers new and better ways to probe the universe, and we will have psychologists and successful school administrators to point out the pitfalls and mistakes that well-intentioned but incautious teachers and principals may make in attempting to derive the benefit from homogeneous grouping that they see so many other teachers and administrators are deriving. And if we can prevent these persons from becoming confused and misdirected by fallacious, misleading, and irrelevant "arguments against homogeneous grouping" they will succeed the sooner to derive these same benefits.

AUTHOR'S NOTE: Before submitting this article to CHILDHOOD EDUCATION the author sent copies of the manuscript to some well known researchers in education for their opinion. Each sent back comments which would fill a page with permission to be quoted. Unfortunately limitations of space prohibit the publication of these interesting comments.

Dr. John L. Stenquist, Director, Bureau of Statistics and Research, Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland, begins his comments by saying, "Our feeling in the Baltimore public schools, after some half dozen years of progress in the homogeneous grouping of pupils strongly supports the arguments advanced by Dr. Otis in his article 'Fallacious Arguments Regarding Ability Grouping'."

The success of ability grouping when properly administered was attested to in similar language by Dr. William L. Connor, Chief, Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio, Dr. Arthur W. Kallom, Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, Boston, Massachusetts, and Dr. Philip A. Boyer, Director of Educational Research, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Educators—Christmas Toys—Children

CHRISTINE HEINIG

Head Teacher, Guidance Nursery School, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City

MAKE Christmas merry for the children! How do you judge your success? The toy manufacturer judges it by the volume of sales, the parent judges it by quantity and by price and personal satisfaction per purchase, the child alone perhaps judges on quality and suitability of gifts received. The parent, overwhelmed by the commercial display and attack of salesmanship and lacking in both time and educational background is unable to make a critical selection of toys. The salesman whose techniques are based on successful commercial experience takes advantage of his customer as noted in any toy dealer's magazine. Here are the large lettered sales techniques advocated for sure sales, landslides, clean cuts, the basis on which most Christmas toys are sold. They feature *first*, a spectacular picture display, and *second*, a showy advertisement. The sales stage is then set for the gullible consumer. Rarely, do we find a hint of suitability, educational opportunity, durability, or beauty. It's the "doll with the flirting eyes" that wins a customer,¹ or the "psychologically" advertised "activity toy for boys." Investigate the activity toy. An aeroplane that takes off from the roof of a tin hangar automatically. The child sits and releases a trigger, off goes the active aeroplane. Who gets the activity and what good is it? How long does the tin toy last? There's not much interest in the answer. A good time was enjoyed by dad and son for a few days when "first its freshness burst."

At Christmas time the stage is set with readiness. The store is ready to sell. The

salesman is ready to intrigue, the public is ready to spend money, the child is eager eyed and impatient to receive. The teacher who has observed the type of daily play, the desires, and the abilities of the children is doubtless the one who best knows what toys children should have. Is she ready to sell her merchandise, her knowledge? Interest will never be more easily secured. Her public is set for action. All they need is guidance to enable them to meet the sales campaign with intelligence. Her ammunition is at hand. She will give her public the principles with which to buy, then they will use intelligence and discretion in purchasing instead of responding with emotion to sales, to propaganda and glitter. Is it easy? It is not. It means work, but a nice challenge. It requires knowledge,



A suggestive contribution of informal materials displayed by parents. Favorite playthings their children choose from the household supply.

¹It was stated recently in a speech at a commercial convention in Boston that the largest per cent of wedding gifts were purchased by women, but strangely enough "birthday presents and children's toys" were in the main purchased by men.



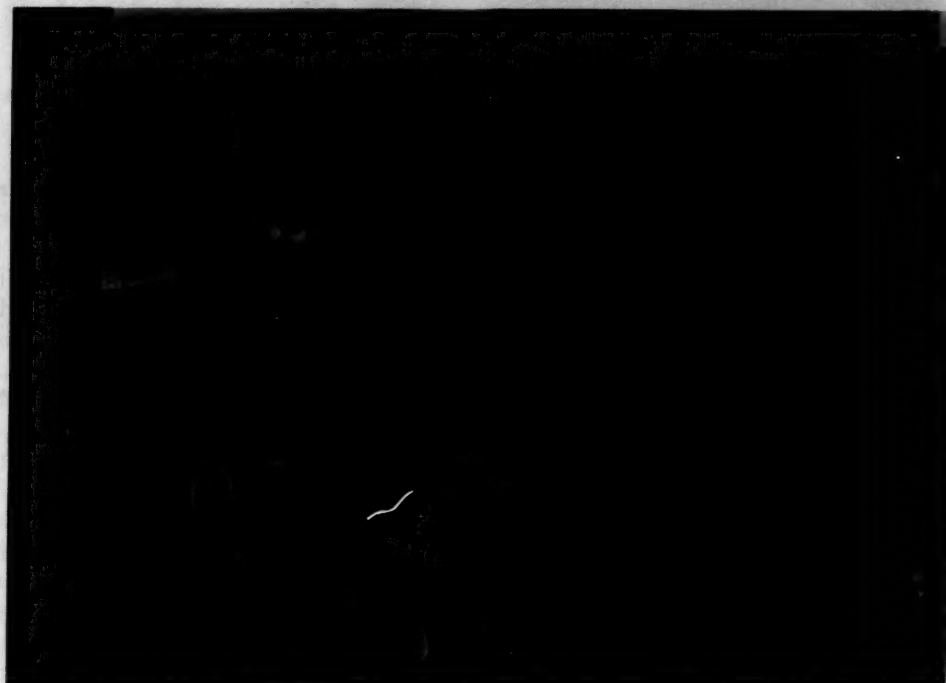
A tag tied to each object contains its trade name and cost, and lists the local stores or agencies through which it may be purchased.



A parent's idea of an item to include in a Christmas display was furnishings to suggest facilities for storage of play equipment and articles encouraging self help.



Book lists supplemented by the books themselves—a selection of musical instruments that produce true pitch—colorful and inexpensive pictures—may be displayed together.



Care has been taken to display types of equipment that are practical and suggestive for home use. Note swing, trapeze, hollow block sets and wheeled toys with pedals.



Child Development Institute, Columbia University, New York City.

Though it is never possible to predict the exact boundary line for equipment for a child of a certain age, it is suggestive in a display to show progression from simpler to more complex materials.

sales psychology, effort, and foresight. It is necessary to start early and mobilize forces. The manufacturers start in January. The salesmen are being educated in the summer toy magazines. The teacher had better start her toy program in October, and at that she is late.

Christmas offers a concrete opportunity for parent education and there are several ways to accomplish it;—arranging for group meetings, individual conferences, home visits and Christmas displays. The best results will be obtained if teachers and parents work together on some such project as a Christmas exhibit, where actual materials can be displayed to vitalize the theoretical discussion. Those who participate will learn the most. The larger the number who work together the easier the load for each one.

Fortunately for the teacher who wishes to attempt such a project pioneer work has been done. Toy and equipment displays have been held at schools, at clubs, in the toy departments of stores, and in hotel parlors. Child study groups have interested toy departments and display space has been made available by them in quantity. Women's clubs and city clubs have welcomed the project, owners of empty stores have donated the use of such space, schools themselves have featured Christmas toy displays. There is no dearth of information. Research studies of children's occupational interests from nursery school through the early grades are available. Materials best adapted to use at various developmental levels can be judged through studies of mental and motor tests, many

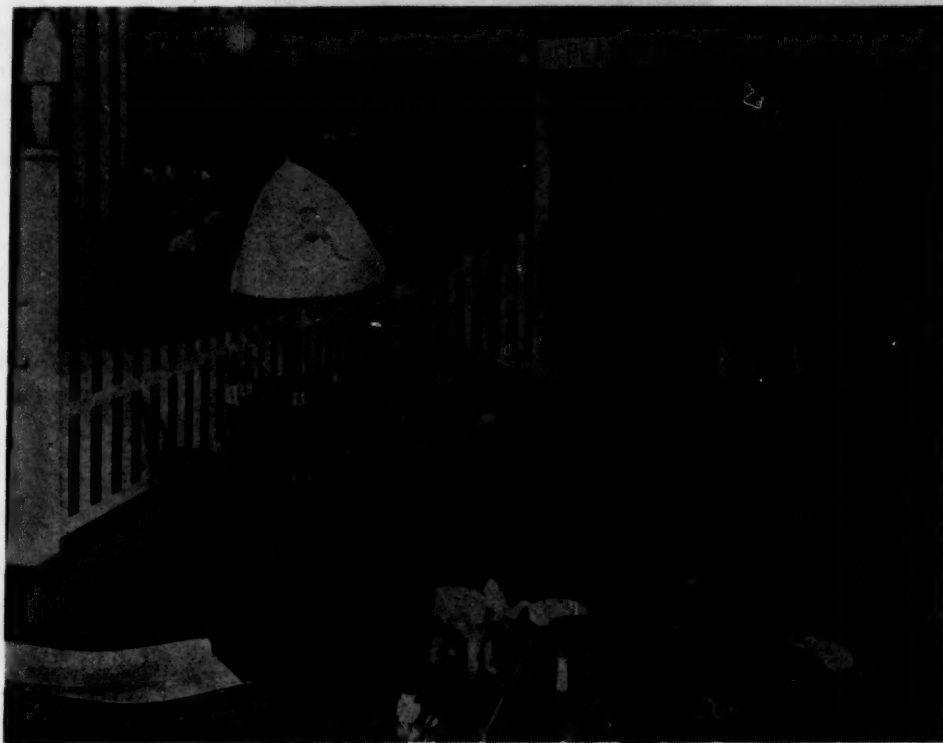
stores themselves have listed their materials by age levels. Such lists can be obtained in quantity and can be easily checked or starred by the teacher as to desirability. Materials are not scarce nor are manufacturers loath to send displays gratis if solicited. Manufacturers of educational playthings are especially eager for this support since they value educational salesmanship and have no "flirting eyed dolls" to use as lures.

Christmas inspires cooperation. No project could be more worth while from the angle of close parent-child-school inter-relationships. Try a Christmas toy and play materials exhibit with parents participating and evaluate it yourself afterward. The following references will give you concrete suggestions.

REFERENCES

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Dealers Magazines: "Playthings" McCready Publishing Co., 381 Fourth Ave., New York City. "Toy World" Pacific Publishing Corp., 742 Market Street, San



Marshall Field & Company, Courtesy of "Toys and Novelties," Chicago, Illinois.

Spacing and placement of materials is an important factor in display. Here use is suggested by placement, a method for arresting the attention of the unimaginative or hurried buyer.

Francisco. "Toy and Novelties" 139 North Clark St., Chicago, Ill.

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Illustrated by Dorothy Lathrop.

Courtesy of The Macmillan Company.

NIGHT

Stars over snow,
And in the west a planet
Swinging below a star.
Look for a lovely thing and you will find it;
It is not far—
It never will be far.

From Stars Tonight by SARA TEASDALE.

The Spontaneous Questions of Public School Children from Four to Eight Years of Age

RUTH ANDRUS

Director, Child Development and Parental Education, State Department of Education,
Albany, New York

ANY analysis of spontaneous questions should be preceded by a discussion of the functions of language in the personality development of early childhood. This is impossible at the present time. The scope of this paper is narrowed to a discussion of spontaneous questions of a group of public school children from four to eight in New York State. Again, the analysis is limited to a discussion of the activities of the questioner, his age and grade, and whether or not the question is asked of children or adults. Certain points are taken up in regard to the form of the question and the relation of the contents of the question to the activity of the questioner. The discussion of the content of the question, the degree of egocentricity or socialization of the questioner must be reserved until later. There have been several studies of the vocabularies of children, the relative frequency of different parts of speech and the development of sentence structure. These studies may be said to deal with the mechanics of speech development. The recent American studies of children's conversation, spontaneous and otherwise, including questions, have been undertaken in most instances to check the significance of Piaget's work for the personality development of American children. Such investigations consider language as a means of expression of personality development, emotional maturity, socialization, and objective thinking.

WHAT IS A SPONTANEOUS QUESTION?

Any remarks of children may be said to be spontaneous which are not pro-

voked by adults or other children. We may take Claparede's definition of question. ¹Claparede defines a question as "A conscious realization of a problem or of difficulty in solving it." In the terms of Dewey's philosophy a question is an expression of a "felt need" for adaptation to a situation. No one of us needs to be reminded that such "felt needs" are the beginning of learning. It is interesting, therefore, to study the questions of children from four to eight in public schools to see what situations or activities give rise to this "felt need," and whether or not the needs are related to the activity, whether the "need" will further or retard emotional and social adjustment. From such a point of view, this study may indicate certain methods for curriculum revision with the child and not the subject matter as the focal point.

Method of Setting Up the Study

CHILD STUDY COMMITTEE

A child study committee was appointed in 1929 by the president of the State Kindergarten Association. On this committee was a representative from each zone. The writer was made chairman of this committee in order that this study of spontaneous questions might be a contribution to the work of the Research Committee of the International Kindergarten Union. At the same time, a committee was appointed to represent the kindergarten department in the teacher training institutions. The entire committee consists of eleven members. Many of the members are kindergarten-primary supervisors, so

¹Claparede, E. "La Psychologie de l'Intelligence." Scientia, 1917. p. 361.

represent early childhood education rather than kindergarten alone.

This committee has been very helpful in securing data and in suggesting groupings of kindergarten-primary activities as a background for the analysis of the questions. The record blanks and direction sheets were worked out by certain members of the committee and the times of recording questions, each week in November, January, March and May, were decided by them. It was deemed advisable to secure data four times, twice in each semester because of the midyear promotions.

From inspection of the various tables where data are analyzed according to the month of recording the questions, one may conclude tentatively that November and March yield data which are not changed in character or made more reliable by the addition of questions in January and May.

RELIABILITY OF DATA

It is safe to say that in the controlled experiment sense of the term, the data are highly unreliable. From the point of view of a field study, the data are probably as reliable as can be obtained. The constant factors in the situation are:

1. The months in which questions are recorded.
2. The blanks on which they were recorded.
3. The size of groups for whom questions are recorded.
4. All situations are public school situations so the size of the room and the equipment are comparatively constant.

Since 9,081 questions were recorded in 887 situations (*i. e.* school groups) by 887 teachers and these schools were located in cities of the first, second and third groups, villages and teacher training institutions, it is probably a fair assumption that a cross section of questions asked by the children in kindergarten-primary grades in New York State has been secured.

These 887 school situations represent approximately 26,610 children or an average of thirty children per situation. This is an underestimate rather than an overestimate.

The number of questions recorded probably represents not the number asked by children from four to eight in kindergarten, first, second and third grades, but the number of questions which the teachers of those groups could record.

Since there are comparatively few children under five admitted to kindergartens in New York State, the present data may not be an adequate indication of the questions asked by children from four to five years of age in a public school situation.

BRIEF ANALYSIS OF ALL DATA SECURED

From a general summary of all the data secured, it is evident that many more situations sent in questions in November and March than in the other two months. January and May are each near the end of a semester so were probably more difficult periods in which to record questions. It is interesting that no matter how many situations reported questions in each one of the four weeks, an average of ten questions per situation was maintained. Perhaps 10 questions a week or an average of two a day is an indication of the number of questions which a public school teacher can record.

Although from the general summary of the data, it may be assumed that the average summary of the data, it may be assumed that the average 10.23 is an indication of the number of questions which can be recorded by a public school teacher in a week, another analysis tells a different story. The kindergarten teacher records an average of 13.6 questions per week, as compared with 7.9 for the first grade, 6.2 for the second grade, and 6.9 for the third grade. When the data from the seven teacher training institutions are analyzed, the difference between the num-

ber of kindergarten questions recorded and those from the other grades is increased. An average of 64.7 questions is recorded for kindergarten, 19.6 for first grade and 14 for the second grade. (No data for third grade).

In order to find out the teachers' reactions to this situation the following questions were sent out to all who had sent in data:

Does this mean that:

1. Kindergarten children ask more questions?
2. Kindergarten children have more opportunity to ask questions?
3. First, second and third grade children are less and less interested in asking questions? or,
4. These children have less and less opportunity to ask questions?
5. Kindergarten teachers do less actual directing of the children every minute so that they have more time to take down the questions?

Seventy-nine teachers replied. An analysis of their replies shows that only 11.4% think that children in the first, second and third grades are less disposed to ask questions than kindergarten children, and that 64.5% think the smaller number of questions in these grades is due to lack of opportunity. Many (58.2%) think kindergarten teachers have more time to record questions.

There are doubtless other factors involved. Since this study is a project of the State Kindergarten Association, kindergarten teachers may have felt a particular responsibility for contributing data. Many of the kindergarten teachers in the teacher training institutions have been especially trained to observe children and record data while in the schoolroom situation.

It may be assumed that the average teacher in the kindergarten-primary situation, without particular training in observing and recording a schoolroom data,

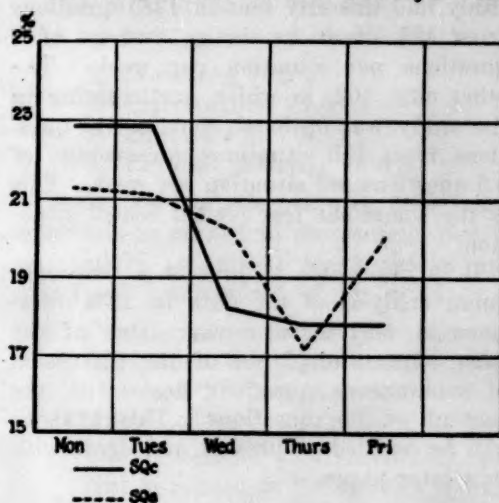
will report an average of ten questions a week.

The following graph for Table I raises the question of a possible fatigue curve when data are analyzed according to the day of the week on which the questions are recorded. After Tuesday, there is a rapid drop in the curve. In the case of recording questions asked of children there is no rise, but an abrupt rise in number of questions asked of adults appears on Friday. Analysis of the 7,000 remaining questions may alter this curve. It would be interesting to study other teacher activities and teacher-pupil relationships to see if similar curves result and to discover possible causes.

TABLE I¹

Day	SQc	%	SQa	%	Total
Monday	297	22.8	187	21.4	484
Tuesday	282	22.8	184	21.05	476
Wednesday	247	18.2	177	20.25	424
Thursday	232	17.8	151	17.23	383
Friday	233	17.8	175	20.00	408
Total	1,301		874		2,175

Number of questions recorded on each day of week



If spontaneous questions are an indication of children's interests and the form

¹SQc=Questions asked of children.
SQa=Questions asked of adults.

and content of these questions reflect degrees of egocentricity and emotional maturity, and if teachers are educable in observing and recording data, what modification in the training of our public school teachers is advisable?

SELECTION OF DATA FOR PRESENT ANALYSIS

Since it was not possible to analyze the entire 9081 spontaneous questions for this paper, data sent in from two cities have been selected. These were selected because each city had sent in questions from kindergarten, first, second and third grades for each month—November, January, March and May. One is a city of the second group, and the other of the third. Each is a river city (we have many such in New York State): Each has a large percentage of foreign population: each is somewhat of an industrial center and each one is the proud possessor of a college. It is possible that one city has a more progressive educational program than the other.

In city, 212, the teachers were requested to record questions during the term of the study and this city sent in 1385 questions from 173 situations, or an average of 8 questions per situation per week. The other city, 102, in which participating in the study was optional, sent in 847 questions from 155 situations, an average of 5.5 questions per situation per week. This is the somewhat less formal school situation.

It is impossible to present a thoroughgoing analysis of the data in 2232 questions in so brief a report. One of the most important phases of the discussion of spontaneous questions deals with the content of the questions. This analysis will be omitted at present and dealt with in a later paper.

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM CITIES 212, 102

We are inclined to believe that the child who strives to make more contacts with adults than children, tends to be emotion-

ally dependent or not so well adjusted socially as the child who makes a greater proportion of contacts with his peers. It is interesting to note that the city with the somewhat more progressive school program shows 65.97% questions asked of children compared with 56.31% from the other city. In addition, the first city shows 34.02% asked of adults compared with 43.68% in second city.

In both cities the girls ask fewer questions than the boys, or, the teachers notice more boys asking questions.

	212	102
Boys	51.35%	52.62
Girls	48.63	45.99

When data are analyzed to see which sex asks more questions of children or adults, the same ratio is maintained.

In city 102, 30.25% questions are asked by children under 6, in 212, 28.66%. In city 102, more younger children are in kindergartens and the age range from kindergarten through third grade, is less than in city 212. There may be somewhat more homogeneous age groupings in 102, and so more favorable opportunity for social adjustment.

An analysis of the age of the questioner in terms of grade placement shows:

	Md age
Kindergarten	5 ; 6
I	6 ; 6
II	7 ; 6
III	8 ; 6

The largest percent of questions asked of children occurs in the age interval 5:6-5:11. The greatest number asked of adults occurs 6:0-6:5—six months to a year later. The number asked of adults continues higher until 7:0-7:5, after which both fall off. Does this mean that school encourages striving for adult attention rather than social adjustment with one's peers?

ACTIVITIES OF CHILDREN ASKING QUESTIONS

Teachers in early childhood education are probably just as much interested in

the activities which apparently prompt the questions as in the content of the questions. From the point of view of curriculum study, the activities are important.

The activity of the child asking the question and the activity of the child questioned were recorded on the blank. The activities recorded were classified in seven groups, each with varying number of subheadings. This list was submitted to the members of the child study committee for criticism and additions. A new classification was then made on the basis of the criticisms and suggestions. There is a great deal of work still to be done on this classification. In its present form there are 7 categories as follows:

1. Materials used by individuals or in spontaneous and artificial groupings—(either teacher or pupil initiated). Paints, blocks, sand, musical instruments, etc., included here.
2. Subject matter groupings, classes, teacher initiated. Reading, rhythm, spelling, etc.
3. Physical activity—indoor and outdoor games.
4. Conversation—with children and teacher.
5. Watching—children and adults.
6. Forming and breaking up groups.
7. Excursions.
8. Lunch.
9. Rest.
10. Walking.

The same list was used to classify the activities of the children of whom the questions were asked.

Analysis of these activities yield the following results:

1. List in order of frequency of questions asked of both children and adults—the rank order for all grades together is: (1)
 1. Materials—47.4%.
 2. Subject matter—18.03%.

(1) Wherever rank order is stated only the first four activities are listed.

3. Forming and breaking up groups—14.5%.

4. Physical activity—7.9%.

Rank order of activities by grades:

KINDERGARTEN

1. Materials—66.84%.
2. Forming and breaking up groups—10.5%.

GRADE I

1. Materials—43.7%.
2. Forming and breaking up groups—18.4%.
3. Subject matter—18.4%.
4. Physical—10.03%.

GRADE II

1. Subject matter—32.6%.
2. Materials—28%.
3. Forming and breaking up groups—16.6%.

GRADE III

1. Subject matter—30.7%.
2. Materials—29.5%.
3. Physical—15.8%.

The rank order of frequency of activities for questions asked of children is:

1. Watching 73.5%.
2. Conversation 72.8%.
3. Materials 68.7%.
4. Physical Activity 67.6%.

From this analysis one may raise many questions in regard to the contribution of curriculum (so-called) to the social and emotional development of the child.

2. Correlation between activities of Questioner and Questioned—.995% (Pearson product moment.)
3. Although the correlation is so high the per cent of questions whose content is related to the activity is 54.8. Are we to assume that although children are working together, they are not thinking of what they are doing more than 53% of the time?

The data are to be analyzed to discover,

if possible, indications in regard to what material phase of subject matter or other activity is conducive to a higher relation between content of question and activity. Analysis will also be made according to age and sex. An interesting question, which these data cannot answer, may be raised as to what degree of coincidence of relationship between content of question and activity is desirable.

4. A rank order of activities according to relation between content of question and activity is as follows:

1. Watching 77.1%.
2. Excursions 70%.
3. Materials 65.6%.
4. Lunch 57.1%.

5. In connection with the fact that boys ask more questions than girls, it is interesting to note the rank order of activities for question frequency according to sexes:

	Boys	Girls
1. Materials	46.8%	49.6%
2. Subject matter	19. %	17.6%
3. Forming and		
breaking up groups	14.4%	14.0%

It would be interesting to analyze the sub-classifications in each category to see if there are sex differences. This has not been done as yet.

6. Analysis according to month in which questions are asked gives same rank order as to sexes.

7. It is interesting to note whether the activity of the child asking questions was changed or remained the same after the question.¹

	SQc	SQa	Both
Activity unchanged	97.1	96.8	97.8

I had thought that perhaps the child's questions of adults ushered in a change of activity but this does not seem to be the case so far as the data have been analyzed.

8. The relevancy of the answer according to Piaget is an important indication

of emotional maturity or decreasing egocentricity. Of the questions asked of children, 92.4% received relevant answers.

9. Whether or not the child waited for an answer is another indication of emotional maturity. Answers were waited for in 77.5% of the cases.

10. Of the questions asked of children 95.52% received answers; of the questions asked of adults 91.3% were answered. Children get adult attention by asking questions. This last figure is important when taken in connection with the content of questions asked of adults. Although a detailed analysis is not yet complete, there is indication that questions asked of adults deal largely with actions and intentions of people—not information about physical phenomena, etc.

FORM OF QUESTION

11. Analysis of form of question according to introductory word gives the following rank order:

1. Verb—47.5%.
2. Interrogative—34.6%
3. Do you know who, etc.?—10.4%.

Further analysis of the subheadings of the introductory work should indicate which interrogative leads. Piaget thinks "whys" are predominant. Such an analysis can be made according to ages and should yield interesting results.

Other categories under *form* are statement, command and condition.

12. Analysis of the tense of verb in questions shows:

Present	—72.93%
Past	—18.04%
Future	—9.02%

This may be another indication of the opportunist, individualistic tendencies of early childhood. Further analysis is to be made according to age and sex.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

It is probably safer to state the results of such a study in terms of questions

¹Note: SQc will indicate questions asked of children. SQa will indicate questions asked of adult.

raised rather than as conclusions reached.

1. Nine thousand and eighty-one questions were recorded in 887 situations by as many teachers in kindergarten, 1, 2, 3, grades. Of these 2,232 have been analyzed for the present study. These questions were recorded by 328 teachers and represent approximately 9,840 children in kindergarten, 1, 2, 3, grades.
2. Since few children under five are admitted to kindergartens in New York State, it is probable that the present data are not adequate indication of questions asked by public school children under five.
3. Since 10 questions per week per teacher was the uniform average for all situations taken together it is fair to assume that the average public school teacher comparatively untrained in observing and recording schoolroom data may be expected to record 10 questions a week. More questions are recorded by kindergarten teachers than others, and this may indicate more opportunity to record or more questions asked by kindergarten children. Kindergarten teachers in teacher-training institutions record many more questions than other kindergarten teachers. In the case of this study, most, if not all the kindergarten teachers in the teacher-training institutions have been trained in observing and recording schoolroom data. One may conclude that teachers are educable in this connection. There may be a suggestion here for teacher-training institutions and city supervisors.

In this connection with the number of questions recorded on different days of the week, something resembling a fatigue curve appears. There should be further study of this phenomenon.

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM TWO CITIES

4. Is a progressive curriculum more favorable for the emotional and so-

cial adjustment of the child because there is more opportunity for contact with his peers and less need of contact with adults? (p. 190, paragraph 4).

5. Girls apparently ask fewer questions than boys.
6. Because the number of questions asked of children falls off after six, and the number asked of adults increases for a time, does this mean that the school encourages striving for adult attention and dependence, especially since the content of these questions deals with intentions and actions of people more than with information in regard to physical phenomena and other subject matter fields?
7. Since the rank order of the frequency of questions asked of children according to the activity of the questioner shows watching others, conversation, materials (paint, blocks, etc.) and games as the four highest, may we conclude that these situations are more favorable to emotional and social growth and development?
8. Although the correlation of the activity of the child asking questions and the activity of the child questioned is .995, the content of the question is related to the activity in only 53.8% of the questions. What are the results of doing one thing and thinking of another almost half the time? To what degree is coincidence between content of question and activity desirable?
9. In this connection it is interesting that the child's activity remained unchanged after the question in 97.1% of the cases.
10. The relevancy of the answer is an important indication of emotional maturity or decreasing egocentrism on the part of the child answering. Ninety-two and four-tenths per

(Continued on page 213)

There Is No Frigate Like a Book

IMA L. KUYKENDALL

Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Fort Worth Public Schools, Fort Worth, Texas

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER defines education as "that which puts the mind into gradual adjustment with the best spiritual inheritances of the race." Matthew Arnold once defined true culture as the study of perfection, and he further defined perfection as "an inward condition of the mind and spirit" that results from "subduing the obvious faults of our animality" and bringing to light "the true ideal of beauty, of sweetness and light, and a human nature complete on all its sides." Intellectual culture must be everlastingly linked to moral and spiritual culture. Outward beauty of form must always be coupled with inward beauty of spirit. To attain such a culture should be the object of all reading.

Books are as much a part of the furnishing of a house as tables and chairs, and in the making of a home they belong not with the luxuries but with the necessities. A bookless house is not a home; for a home affords food and shelter for the mind as well as the body. Emerson says, "Consider what you have in the smallest chosen library; a company of the wisest men that could be picked out of all civilized countries in a thousand years have set in best order the results of their learning and wisdom. The men themselves were hidden and inaccessible, solitary, impatient of interruption, but the thought which they did not uncover to their friends is here written out for us, the strangers of another age." And his friend, Carlyle, adds, "Of all the things which men can do or make here below, by far the most momentous, wonderful, and worthy are the things we call books."

Young children are helpless to protect themselves and secure what they need for health of body and mind. It becomes the

sacred and imperative duty of parents and teachers to give them this, the best attainable preparation for life. In seeking to make reading a genuine pleasure to the child, enabling him to live a rich, full and complete life through experiences found in reading, we may inculcate a love of good literature, cause the child to have a definite worth-while purpose or motive in reading such as the recreational, informational, esthetic or social if we, in selecting a book for him, have previously set up sound standards, and now ask ourselves such questions as: "Has this book literary merit?" "Will it interest the child?" "Will what it adds to his life be for his good?" "Is its spirit fine, its atmosphere wholesome?" "What is the best age for the child to have this book in order that he may get the most out of it?"

Doctor Johnson thought that the thorough study of one great masterpiece made any man a powerful antagonist. Henry Grady said that the frequent reading of "Les Miserables" made him the friend and advocate of the oppressed. Gibson upon one occasion remarked, "I would not exchange my love for reading for all the wealth of India."

Children learn to read well by reading much. Some of the most effective aids for stimulating in the child the desire and love for reading are the use of the library, the careful selection of books and stories, the taking into consideration of variety and the special appeal of books for each age. The library furnishes an opportunity for enjoying books through handling them, cultivates browsing in books, sets up standards of behavior in regard to library study, and enables the child to appreciate good literature and illustrations. A reading table furnished with a miscellaneous collection of easy, attractive books and magazines suitable

for the individual child should be in every home, in every grade of the primary school. The "library atmosphere" of quiet and orderliness should be cultivated and observed by the children. The main purpose of the reading table is to afford additional opportunities for the children to become familiar with and to derive pleasure from books through handling them and selecting those that appeal to them. Bacon's suggestion of long ago

and an abundance of easy reading material.

An extensive reading program for young children is highly desirable in every school system. Where library funds are meager and all supplemental reading texts are state-adopted with little opportunity for teacher choice in selection, the problem of supplying the right book at the right time to the right child becomes a potent one fraught with grave respon-



A reading table where children may browse among books, handling and selecting those which appeal to them, should be in every grade of the primary school.

applies with equal force here, "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few are to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously, and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention." There should be a wide range of books on the library table, such as the traditional literature that grew up among the folk of long ago, in the forms of rhyme, myth, fairy tale, fable, legend and romantic hero story or the literature that has been produced in modern times by individual authors. These books should contain attractive, worth-while illustrations

sibilities. In such a situation, the group reading plan outlined below has evolved—a scheme which has been used successfully by the student teacher in the training school, as well as by the teacher in service.

GROUP READING ON THE CHILD'S OWN LEVEL

Group children according to reading ability into three or more groups.

Children are guided by teacher in selection of book they will read, choosing a book adapted to group's reading ability.

The first objective in group reading is to select reading adapted to the child's level.

The second objective in group reading is for the individual child to be able to read more books than otherwise.

Procedure:

Step 1. The Study

Each group reads silently. Teacher passes from group to group giving assistance as needed.

Read over once or twice selections not over four or five pages in length.

Step 2. The Drill

Assemble into groups, such as, *The Story Hour Group*, *The Child-Library Reader Group*, *The Silent Reading Hour Group*.

Each group has a chairman, or leader. (The chairman should be on a reading level with the other children of his group.)

The chairman calls on different children to read until all in the group have read several times.

The teacher passes from group to group listening to the children read.

Step 3. The Check

After the children read the selection chosen they go to their seats and a report is given by the chairman of each group. Such comments as the following may be made by the chairman as reporter: "I like the way John said 'going,' 'often,' and 'toward,'" or "Tom stops at his periods, or Mary reads more distinctly and makes us see the pictures when she reads," etc.

The chairman tells, or calls on others to relate, the beginning of the story up to a certain point. The story is left unfinished as a stimulus to excite the curiosity of other readers, who will wish to complete it.

As a final check for one group, an oral rendition or dramatization of the selection assigned is suggested.

By stimulating the home and school environment, choosing carefully and wisely the books read, making use of the interest in records, the bulletin board, the "Good News Corner," the school newspaper,

scrapbooks, slogans, charts, and library, the desire, the love for reading is increased; the ability to get thought with accuracy, facility and reasonable rapidity is developed; and the true purpose of education, that of bringing the child into his inheritance, is realized.

"This traverse may the poorest take." Gertrude Pearl Carlson has written a social poem, which describes in a powerful way to every teacher and parent the value of the library.

"I am the Library.

I am a teacher.

I am a teacher bigger than the school,
For I teach all

I teach the youth

Who comes with inquiring mind,

Eager to know all possibilities

The universe holds in store for him.

Anxious concerning the future,

I give him romance—Scott, Dumas, Mark
Twain

And biography—Franklin, Lincoln, Roosevelt;

And history, and science, and travel;

I lead him into the ways of beauty,

And give him art and music and poetry,

I inspire him; I teach him.

I teach the new American.

Come—hope—fed to this land of promise,

I show him the ways of her fathers

The ideals of her great men and women,

The meaning and beauty of her land.

I teach him pride in her honor,

And glory in his new citizenship.

I make him an American.

I teach all—scholar, preacher, man of
business,

Woman, maker and keeper of homes;

Soldier, lawyer, scientist,

I call all to me;

I give them my teachings;

I am the teacher of the world,

I am the Library."

Character Development and the Christmas Toy Shop

ELIZABETH BRECKINRIDGE

Principal, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky

THE week before the Christmas holidays of 1916 the writer had the opportunity to visit the Frances W. Parker School, Chicago. The manual training shops and art rooms were busy putting the finishing touches on new toys and on old ones made new. These toys were later to be given to less fortunate children in the city. This Christmas idea was one of many valuable suggestions secured on the visit that the writer strove to put into effect in her own school during the following year.

The "Christmas Toy Shop" made its first appearance at the Louisville Normal School, December, 1917. Compared with the hundreds of beautiful toys now on display in the auditorium of the school each Christmas, this first "Toy Shop" was a very modest affair. It consisted of a limited number of new toys, made in the various classrooms of the school, and given to those children in the neighborhood who would have little or no Christmas.

Before the Christmas of 1918 the "Toy Shop" was extended to include the repair of discarded toys. A "Toy Day" was instituted when the various classes, both in the children's department and in the college, vie with each other in their efforts to collect the greatest possible number of discarded toys. For weeks in advance the Training School has its posters, "Don't Forget Your Toys," "A Toy From Each Boy and Girl," or "Have You Brought Your Toys?"

Many interested friends and a committee of graduates of the school aid in the collection of toys for "Toy Day." Since it has become a civic project of

city-wide interest, large transfer companies each year offer their services in the collection and distribution of our toys.

When the eventful "Toy Day" arrives, piled high on the auditorium stage, are several thousand toys, resembling for all the world a junk heap. Great is the excitement when the representatives of the various classes, completely covered with tags, each of which represents a toy, march to the stage and, in an auditorium, crowded with students, children and friends, give their reports of the number of toys brought in by their classmates.

After the "Toy Day" program, the dilapidated toys are sent to the manual training shops, art rooms and various classrooms of two large training schools and of the college department. Every group in the school has a part in renovating these toys. One grade, for instance, puts in order all of the games that are donated; this frequently means the supplying of missing parts. Another grade cleans and mends many of the books, while other groups are busy originating new games, puzzles and toys of various kinds.

The major part of the work is done during the art and manual training periods. A coat of paint on a wicker doll buggy, a new wheel on a "kiddy-kar," a deft touch of the brush on the face of a doll, or glue, binding-tape and scissors on a book change, as if by magic, the old to "as good as new."

In addition to the repairing and decorating of old toys, time and opportunity are given to pupils to invent new ones.



The deft touch of a brush on the face of a doll changes the old to "as good as new."



Toys have been collected from friends for the "Toy Day" display.



Students of the art department enjoy the painting of toys.

Each year there are those who have the ability and initiative to invent novelty toys that recall old Nuremburg. It may be a life-like turtle that rolls along on invisible wheels, or a cat catching a ball, or possibly a whole set of doll furniture that some expert carver has made out of cigar boxes.

Not infrequently children who have left the school to go either to work or to high school send back designs of attractive toys with the request that they be used for the "Christmas Toy Shop."

When all are finished—new toys, examples of the creative ability of children, old toys made new with bright coats of paint and artistic decoration—they are carefully displayed upon the auditorium stage. Again students, children and friends of the school assemble for the Christmas program.

By no means the least important phase of the work comes when, after the Christmas program, all except the Transportation Committee" have left the auditorium. The hundreds of bright colored toys are gathered together by this committee of students and children and packed into automobiles and other conveyances for distribution among the vari-

ous institutions for children in the city. Lists of the names and ages of children in these institutions have been sent to the school by the Mayor's committee several weeks in advance. Frequently this distribution requires the greater part of two days.

The value of this project has been shown in many ways. It provides an excellent outlet for the ingenuity and creative ability of pupils from the primary grades through the college classes. The different departments of the school are more closely united through the unselfish service given by all in the working out of such a project. Contact with social conditions outside of school develops in children and students a broader social consciousness leading to a more sympathetic attitude toward movements for civic betterment. The spirit of earnestness and joy that pervade the work, the unselfish manner in which the children of the school frequently part with their cherished toys, the hours of extra time voluntarily given by the students, all give evidence of their belief in the truth that "the gift without the giver is bare."



Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky.

Time and opportunity are given to pupils to invent new toys.

Rhythmic Expression*

RUTH FULLER STEVENS

Student, University of California at Los Angeles, California

AS Civilization has, with one hand, dropped her many gifts into our laps, she has at the same time, robbed us with the other. One of the treasures which we have lost in this way is that native, spontaneous rhythm which one finds weaving through the lives of primitive peoples. A negro laundress, or a cotton picker in our own southern states, carrying huge baskets upon their heads, swings along with an unconscious rhythm of movement in spite of burdens or mis-shaped bodies, and in one of the Balkan states a few years ago I found a spot where even today civilization has not killed the natural grace of the people.

On their knees beside a stream, the Albanian washer-women beat, and rub, and pound their clothes—dip, and rinse, and wring them from cold running water, and to an accompaniment of their own making, which is as fluid as the water, and which accents the rhythm of their activity. Soldiers, in their barracks, sit cross-legged on the floor, swaying back and forth from the hips, and singing their interminable rhythmic chants to relieve the heat and the monotony. The gypsies and the mountaineers swing over the stony roads with the grace and ease of wild creatures. The farmers following their wooden plows which are drawn by water buffalo, move to a slower beat, but none the less rhythmically, and the sheep herders with their reed pipes and their weird minor airs are the distraction of a civilized western ear.

It throws an interesting side light on the potency of rhythm moreover to look in at the Mosque and see the dancers there. The control that rhythm can exert over the human organism is terrifying

when seen in the raw. One night as we watched the dervishes whipping the worshippers to a frenzy, the crescendo throb and beat of their rhythm affected my heart and my breathing to the point of acute discomfort. It was necessary to leave before the climax was reached—And I was only a woman, and a “dog of an unbeliever.” So much for the latent possibilities of rhythm.

But that was ten years ago. Civilization moves swiftly these days and even in the Balkans they may be teaching folk dancing—while we here in America have so far lost rhythm from the every day, business equipment of our lives, that we have to stop to think just what it really is, and how we can best make a start in bringing it back, at least into the lives of the children with whom we are associated.

Rhythm is the foundation of music. One must feel it before one can sing or play rhythmically, and this sequence is an interesting antithesis to the explanation Dr. Dewey gives of expression, in the field of graphic art, as necessary for the clarifying and enforcing of the child's mental image. In addition to this musical aspect of rhythm, there is an extremely practical value which it has for us. All effort is less trying and easier when made rhythmically, so that our loss is a matter of physical well-being as well as of aesthetics and poise. How can we best set about restoring to city-bred, sophisticated, modern children some part of this joyous element in life of which civilization has robbed them?

Fortunately rhythm is the earliest aspect of music which appeals to a child. A tiny baby will follow a rhythmically moving object with its eyes. A little later it will beat out rhythmic intervals with

* Observations at the Demonstration School of the University of California at Los Angeles, Summer Session, 1930.

its spoon, or a block, or whatever comes most conveniently to hand,—and as often as not upon the mother's mahogany piano bench or a porcelain dish. He is no respecter of furniture, being only interested in the joyous experience of coincident auditory and kinaesthetic sensations.

Starting from the one and one-half year level, the University of California at Los Angeles Demonstration School Kindergarten and Nursery School has offered, during the summer session of 1930, an opportunity for studying the rhythmic expression spontaneous in children on the two, three, four and five year age levels under the most ideal conditions. Out of doors, in sun-suits most of them, under a sun whose heat was unnoticed in a breeze which swept up almost continuously from the ocean, the thirty-eight children went busily about their affairs, as undisturbed by the flocks of peering observers as though we had been a part of the hills which formed their natural background. We meanwhile, with note books and pencils, made the most of our opportunities!

There proved to be so many points at which we found the beginnings of rhythm, and at which it would be possible to offer the stimulus and encouragement necessary for its continuous development, that it is hard to know which ones to include and which to omit. The "Choo-choo-choo" of the train play is rhythm at a two and even three year level. In the pat-pat-pat of little hands upon the clay, in the bouncing balls—and many times in less obvious places we found true rhythm. In the sand box for instance, I have seen the different children, in absolutely unself-conscious enjoyment of motion for its own sake, repeating the same series, over and over and over, as Gordon, filling a pail with cones-full of dry sand. He dug the cone deep into the sand, raised it high and emptied it with a beautiful sweep of his arms, dig, lift, pour; dig lift, pour, full

of rhythm, and just for the delight in the movement, his whole body bending far forward as he filled the cone. Another child, seated in the sand box, with a board grasped firmly in both hands shoves it forward as far as his arms will reach, and swaying from the hips, shoves and pulls, forward and back, time after time, just for the sake of the doing. And just asking for some adult to enjoy the rhythm with him.

The pattern we found for rhythmic expression at the different age levels paralleled very closely the developing social adjustments and general activity of the child. Betty May at nineteen months, sitting alone in the sand box rattles her six blue enamel dishes back and forth in her hands, over and over, laughing gleefully at the noise they make, before she scatters them broadcast through the sand with one grand sweep of her arm. Another day she stands on the swinging plank, half way up and tries for several seconds to catch the rhythm of the board. She finally loses her balance and steps off, to be promptly diverted to some other activity. But she has been purposefully trying for rhythmic motion.

The interest span of the two year olds is short, but one day Benjamin rocked the teeter "UP—down, UP—down, UP—down," eighteen times with a steady rhythm, and then again later came back to it, this time saying "Down—down—down—down" as the alternate ends went down. Another time that same morning he rocked it again, this time singing a soft little accompaniment for himself, that I was too far away to catch. During the last week or so of the summer he sang the "See-saw, see-saw" which he had heard others sing, with great satisfaction as he rocked it up and down. But Betty May's "Down—down—down—down" which she sings as she comes down the stairs is just as truly rhythm—at the year-and-a-half old level.

On the three year level, where we find

the beginning of form in their other activities, we find that they begin to have rhythmic experiences in common. Elinor and Jamie beating on a barrel alternately; Elinor and Gordon vigorously sweeping their "house"; and Elinor and Jamie that same morning, lying on their tummies on the stile, holding hands and swinging their arms as far over the edge as they could reach, back and forth in time to their chanting. Their dramatic play was full of rhythm that morning, both motor and verbal.

"Who's under my fence?" sang Elinor.

"Moo—moo—mooooooooo!" replied the chorus of "BEARS" from under the steps!"

"Who's there?"

"Moo—moo—moooooooooooooooo!"

This was the first time that I had heard any real chanting in their play, and from this to the complicated "Boat Song" which the three year old group—these same children—produced during the last weeks of the summer is a long step.

It started one morning when Joan pulled the big packing cases around and with Elinor and Robert as her first recruits began calling, in time to considerable rhythmic pounding and hammering:

"All aboard
All aboard
All aboard
All aboard"

(Then a pause and repeat, followed by another pause.)

"All aboard
All aboard"
"All aboard
All aboard"

"All aboard"—(on a lower note, and then on the original note)

"ALL aboard
"ALL aboard"

"All aboard," calls Robert.

"Train's here
"Train's gone!"

"Toot-toot," says Jamie.

"Train's gone!
Train's gone!" says Robert, hitting

the box with a stick.

"This is the back" says one child.

"That is the front."

"Where we two are is the engine!"

"Has TWO smoke stacks!" says Robert and all the children leave except Gordon and Jamie.

"Tot-toot," says Gordon.

"Down the tracks" calls Jamie.

"Up the track" says Gordon.

"DOWN the track" says Jamie.

"Where are you going?" asks Jamie of Cappy who has seized control during the argument above.

"To San Diego!"

"Can I go with you?" asks Jamie.

"Can I?" from Gordon.

Gordon and Jamie climb aboard, but very soon leave Cappy and George in command.

"Moo-moo-moo-moo-moo" sing Cappy and George happily, and the boat is dropped for the time being.

The first episode of the boat drama was over, and for an interval of several days I heard no more chanting. Then one morning, after painting away on the boat for half an hour or more, Robert decided that it was as ship-shape as his efforts could make it, and announced in a high clear tone:

"Going to Catal' (Catalina?)

"Going to New 'ork

Train going to New 'ork

Going to New 'ork

Boat going to N-E-W 'O-R-K!"

Gordon joined him, and in the boat together they sang:

"The boat's going

The boat's going

The boat's going," Robert leading the chant, and then as he stands a plank on end:

"This is the whistle.

Whistle's blowing

Whistle's blowing

Whistle's blowing

Whistle's blowing."

"Turn the wheel

Go up to the motor

And turn the wheel."

"And turn the wheel," answered a second child on a lower note.

"And turn the wheel" (Robert).

"And turn the wheel" (second child again).

"T-U-R-N the wheel

Turn the wheel!"

"Sh-sh-sh-sh-sh-sh-sh-sh-sh"

"It's going!"

Gordon wiping up some paint water which has been spilled, moves his whole body in time to the chanting which continues:

"Turn the wheel

Turn the wheel

We turn the wheel

So it's all right to go."

"Whistle is blowing

Whistle is blowing

Whistle is *BLOWING*." (Ending on a high clear note.)

"We should get down"

"Here we are going

On top up here! (Robert stamping with his feet on top of box.)

Yes a-mam-y

Yes a-mam-y

Yes a-mam-y

Yes a-mam-y

We are going up the mountain,

Up the hill."

"Whistle is blowing

Do you want to get on?"

"NO" (sang Jamie clear across the play ground!)

"Train is going

Train is going

It won't stop again!" Robert leads the chorus with the others chiming in.)

"Turn up the whistle

Turn up the whistle"

"It's going." Robert moves his body back and forth in time to his chanting, as he pulls and pushes on a lever which he has adjusted.

"That's to make it go," he says.

"Toot-toot" says Elinor.

"Here goes the train

It's never going to stop,

It's going

Boat's going

Boat's going," sings Robert over and over and over, for seven times as he moves his body back and forth. As I reluctantly tore myself away I heard behind me.

"URban service

URban service

URban service

URban service

IS GONE!

They're make the whistle blowing
Whistle blowing."

And Joan at the swings, with her Teddy Bear:

"Swing, Teddy-Bear, Teddy-Bear,

Swing, Teddy-Bear, Teddy-Bear."

From the next two days came still more complicated rhythm in the form of chants using three or four notes. The first was when Robert inspired by the sight of the girls cleaning their house, procured a broom and set about swashing down his decks, singing over and over as he worked:

"Sweep the boat

Doo Dee Dum Dum." Using the B (above middle C), G, D, and then up on the second line, D-G-B-B. And then the next day came:

"Who wants to get onto the boat

Before it starts!

It's going to be crowded

Going with lots of people

Who wants to sit on it?

It's going

The motor's going

Toot-toot

a-too"

And when Robert went home at noon, after he "turned off the whistle" he sang several times over, to F (above middle C) B flat, S:

"Good-bye boat

Good-bye boat

Good-bye boat."

The four year olds with their hammers beat out some quite effective rhythms, and even with their bubble pipes one

morning toward the end of the summer, they were definitely co-operating in the stirring and rapping. They produced a rhythm so attractive in its possibilities that for the moment attention was entirely distracted from the bubbles. Herbert and Baird, and Ruth and Baird, kept together very well, and seemed to enjoy the result. And just as the group were starting for the lavatory, Ralph discovered a caster sticking out from the bottom of one of the overturned boxes. It made a most delightful instrument for, as it turned round and round, and rolled caster fashion in the other plane, it made a sound as well. "Turn, turn, twist," it went, "Turn, turn, twist—" as he hit it with his hand or flipped it around with a sidewise motion.

Form is gradually developing and in language we find songs and chants, some of which the children recognize as their own and feel a personal proprietorship in. Eugenia suggests one morning that Miss Smith "sing a song about a table." "I don't know any" says Miss Smith. "Do you?" Ruth volunteers to sing one, and cheerfully chants:

"Table I want to set you.

Table I want to eat on you.

Table I want to set you.

I want to play the piano—."

And again we find them giving long antiphonal chants as they play:

Jimmy: "I see the rocking horse."

(With strongly marked rhythm.)

Eugenia: "So do I."

Jimmy: "I see the Easter egg."

Eugenia: "So do I."

Jimmy: "I see the box we played with yesterday."

Eugenia: "So do I."

I feel that the five year olds did not have a fair share of observation at my hands, in connection with this rhythm study. Almost my only note on them concerns a day when the girls filled the swings and swung high in the air, singing not a swing song, but "London Bridge Is Falling Down." Their bodies were full

of the music and their swinging and singing quite unconscious of self. Mrs. Coleman in "Creative Music" says that the pictures made by the children of about this level show that they are artistically in the age of development corresponding to that of the tom-tom in music. Which accounts without doubt for the keen delight with which their procession marches about the playground to the accompaniment of beating drum and clashing cymbal.

A new sort of rhythm is creeping into the lives of the five year group moreover, the rhythm of form and line and color. The beginnings of these may be seen quite clearly in their wall paper for their playhouse, and in many of their paintings. The two and three year old has only motor rhythm in his easel painting. The five year old begins to show the rhythm of design.

Just as rhythm is the foundation of music, it is the basis of all art. It is essential to any artistic expression, and as it develops in the child it takes on form, whether the expression of it be with brush and paint at an easel, with words in a song or chant, in motor activity, modelled into a chunk of clay, or beaten out on some primitive musical instrument. My observation this summer in the Demonstration School has raised endless questions in my mind and it left me feeling that I had barely glimpsed the beginnings of a problem in the study of children's rhythmic development. Among the questions are:

First: Why do the five year old children show a falling back instead of a progression in their motor, and verbal, and musical rhythmic expression? Is it because of the way music has been presented to them? Is it merely that civilization has gotten its grip upon them by the time they reach five years? Or is it because of their greater appreciation of form in other fields? Do they for instance, instead of chanting about a wheel, "Turn the wheel, turn the wheel" and

so forth in dramatic play, set to work and make a wheel? Construct something that will really *TURN*? And is it inevitable that this falling off of rhythmic expression should occur at this stage of development?

Second: To what extent are the different expressions of form in artistic expression to be regarded as simply manifestations of the growing maturity which during the same period is introducing more complicated social forms and more elaborate general activity? And if this is the case, how nearly can one correlate the development of form and rhythm for any one child in the different fields of expression?

Third: When does individual difference first appear? Is an unusually fine sense of rhythm and form in one field of activity necessarily accompanied by an

equal degree of sensitivity in the others? Or a specially poor sense, by a poor sense in other lines of activity?

Fourth: Is there anything that can be deduced from a child's method of work and his interests in connection with the general activity program, as to his feeling for rhythm and form in the so-called arts side of his experience?

Whatever answers future observations may give to my questions, the observation of this past summer has shown that little children do seem to have a spontaneous sense of rhythm, and an enjoyment of rhythmic activity; that this seems to diminish after the four year level instead of developing farther; and more clearly than anything else it has shown that music and rhythm are assuredly "not an outside accomplishment" but should be "a real and essential part of our educational life."



CHRISTMAS MORNING

If Bethlehem were here today,
Or this were very long ago,
There wouldn't be a winter time
Nor any cold or snow.

I'd run out through the garden gate,
And down along the pasture walk;
And off beside the cattle barns
I'd hear a kind of gentle talk.

I'd move the heavy iron chain
And pull away the wooden pin;
I'd push the door a little bit
And tiptoe very softly in.

The pigeons and the yellow hens
And all the cows would stand away;
Their eyes would open wide to see
A lady in the manger hay,

If this were very long ago
And Bethlehem were here today.

And Mother held my hand and smiled—
I mean the lady would—and she
Would take the woolly blankets off
Her little boy so I could see.

His shut-up eyes would be asleep,
And he would look like our John,
And he would be all crumpled too,
And have a pinkish color on.

I'd watch his breath go in and out.
His little clothes would all be white.
I'd slip my finger in his hand
To feel how he could hold it tight.

And she would smile and say, "Take care,"
The mother, Mary, would. "Take care;"
And I would kiss his little hand
And touch his hair.

While Mary put the blankets back
The gentle talk would soon begin.
And when I'd tiptoe softly out
I'd meet the wise men going in.

From Under the Tree by ELIZABETH MADOX ROBERTS. *The Viking Press*

The Kindergarten Orchestra

MARJORIE MACDONALD

Kindergarten Teacher, Mount Vernon, New York

DURING the past few years there has been a notable growth in the use of the rhythm band or orchestra. This emphasis on rather formal rhythm (as contrasted with the popular interpretive work) has stimulated the kindergarten orchestra which had proceeded along more or less stereotyped lines for a number of years. More varied instrumentation, in some instances the making of instruments, more solo playing, special effects with the different instruments, new music, and the performances of the primary bands have aroused a new interest in this phase of kindergarten work.

Usually a child entering kindergarten has very indistinct musical discrimination. His capabilities have not been put to much use at home and it is seldom that there has been a translation of natural rhythm sense into specific reactions. The most important step in a successful development of this latent ability is the growth of tone-consciousness. This sensitivity to musical sounds may be fostered in young children by music presented in a dramatic and highly motivated fashion. The music may be simple yet very effective if played with a maximum amount of swing and accent. When an attentive awareness to music has become habitual, recognition of the more subtle tone and rhythm variations in music will follow quite naturally. It is then that one gets surprising results in the playing of the kindergarten orchestra.

The following procedure may be helpful. It is merely illustrative and would necessarily be changed as classes vary and teacher inspiration changes from day to day and term to term.

1. Davison and Surette: "Ah! Vous

Dirai-je, Maman" from "140 Folk-Tunes."

Grainger: "Country Gardens."

At first, marches should be sharply over-accented. Clapping, walking, and the introduction one by one of the orchestra instruments (played by successful clappers), will hold the attention and interest of the children until the simple march rhythm becomes a part of their consciousness.

2. Jones and Barbour: "Dance of the Harvest Moon" from "Child Land in Song and Rhythm"—Book II.
Lehar: "Merry Widow Waltz."

Any simple waltz even with a heavily accented first beat will likely be played by the children on all three beats at first. Then the "1" may be played loudly, followed by "2" and "3" played softly. Later the playing of the first beat only will bring control and attentive listening. If the children learn to count the "1-2-2" many other combinations are possible. A similar procedure may be followed with marches.

3. Jones and Barbour: "Brownie Band" from "Child Land in Song and Rhythm"—Book I.

This is excellent music for initiating interest in more complex ways of "fitting" music. If played with very vigorous accent on the third beat of every measure, followed by a slight pause, it may be interpreted as, "Play, play, stop!" The first three beats only are played. Most classes play this correctly and with much enthusiasm after about two weeks of orchestra. They enjoy the absolute silence on the fourth beat.

4. Otto: "Skating" from "Rhythm and Action with Music for the Piano" by Norton.

Three rolls over the xylophone for the recurring groups of three short "runs" in the music, followed by "tap, tap" on the drum, Chinese drum, or tambourine in every alternate measure make a rhythm pattern that is much enjoyed.

5. Ghys: "Amaryllis."

The children play every note, including the "run" in the third and seventh measures. The middle section of the composition may be played for drums alone. The "runs" in the first and last section would naturally be much emphasized at the beginning in calling the attention of the children to it.

6. Hayden: Theme from the introduction to "Surprise Symphony."

The whole selection is played as softly as a lullaby, ending with a crashing chord as the surprise. There is a pause at the end of each phrase. Kindergarten children appreciate the familiar story connected with this prelude.

7. Hyde: "At Play" from "Rhythms for the Kindergarten."

This may be played in various ways. Full orchestra for the first three beats of each measure and triangles alone for the fourth beat is popular.

8. Arnold and Brown: "Cathedral Chimes."

For triangle solos:

9. "Sweeping and Dusting" in "Songs with Music" from "The Kindergarten Children's Hour."

The arrangement of the time value of the notes is alike throughout this selection and the orchestra may follow the same scheme.

10. Brahms: "Waltz 15."

The music starts pianissimo and increases gradually to fortissimo. It is possible for children to become quite sensitive to crescendos and diminuendos.

11. Spaulding: "March of the Sleepy-head" from "Book of Rhythms" by Arnold.

This may be played according to the time value of the notes.

12. Hyde: "Indians" from "Rhythms for the Kindergarten."

In this selection there is a regular tom-tom rhythm throughout the bass.

13. Gilbert: "Shadowland."

The first part of this composition makes a very good march. The trio may be played as follows: First sixteen measures, drums, blocks, etc., next four measures (repeated), tinkling instruments, last sixteen measures, full orchestra.

14. Davison and Surette: "140 Folk-Tunes."

Simple folk songs or folk dances may be played note for note. This is especially true of songs the children sing and know well. Songs such as "London Bridge Is Falling Down" and "The Farmer in the Dell" are especially valuable as an introduction to this form of playing. After becoming accustomed to playing the note value of songs, their singing for a while is likely to be overshadowed by enthusiastic rhythmic responses.

15. Playing fast and slow, loud and soft, according to the lead of the piano or the conductor, if there is one, is interesting and keeps everyone on the alert. Familiar music should be used here too. The leader may call for the solo playing of certain instruments or groups of instruments. Sometimes the orchestra may accompany certain dances, skips, etc. Often the children vary the interpretation of their orchestra music, using the instruments they fancy in ways that they originate themselves.

16. Orchestra stories.

Many orchestra instruments suggest things in the child's environment or experience. The drum may represent a parade or thunder, the xylophone, a rippling brook, the two notes of the cuckoo's call or running upstairs or downstairs; the Chinese chimes, struck sharply, sound like a fire gong, the triangles like bells, the Chinese drum, struck lightly, resembles

rain, and so forth. A story bringing in as many of these things as possible and with much repetition is amusing. The children, of course, interpret on their instruments the various "sound" parts of the story as they occur and recur.

One of the primary objects of the kindergarten orchestra, aside from the enthusiasm usually resulting from successful playing, is the development of intelligent and appreciative listening. Because of this demand on the sense of hearing it seems best not to have the additional stimulus and strain of constantly watching a leader. The music itself with the help of the teacher should adequately assist the child in his rhythm interpretations. On the other hand, as an occasional happening, the conducting of familiar selections by various children adds interest and variety and is commendable.

The compositions suggested above are

not difficult to play. Their effectiveness, however, depends to a great extent on vigorous accent and a certain dramatic quality given to them by the teacher. They have been used successfully for several years with a large group of average to above average children. In connection with class ability it is always important to remember that musical intelligence does not necessarily coincide with other varieties of intelligence. Many subnormal children are very quick and accurate in their response to rhythm.

Much more progress is possible with the kindergarten orchestra than has heretofore been imagined. This additional progress gives a tremendous new impetus to the other aspects of the child's musical experience and at the same time is very much worth while by itself as an unusually fine sense-training project and as a joy-giving social activity.

2

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NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

THE LAWS MEMORIAL AUDITORIUM

The University of Cincinnati held a memorial Vesper Service for Miss Annie Laws on October 25th, 1931. This service was in the nature of a dedication of the recently completed Laws Memorial Auditorium, Teachers' College, University of Cincinnati. It is most fitting that the life of Miss Laws, devoted to the interests of young children and their teachers, should be honored in this beautiful manner.

"LET US ALL UNITE IN SECURING EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION"

This quotation from the cover of the new leaflet just issued by the General Federation of Women's Clubs is a challenge and a promise. In it we find information and suggestions of much practical value given under five heads: The Home and Parental Education. The Community and Cooperative Education. The Day Nursery. The Nursery Schools. The Kindergarten. Copies may be secured by members of the General Federation of Women's Clubs by writing to 1734 N Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.

HOUSING IN RELATION TO FAMILY DEVELOPMENT

The President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership is making a study in an effort to determine what effect the physical features of the house have upon the development of the family living in the house. The questionnaires upon which the study is to be based have been sent to many different groups. Members of the Association for Childhood Education have received these questionnaires and will count it a privilege to cooperate in this study which promises help in the solving of present day home problems.

CIRCULATION COMMITTEE ACTIVE

A plan to acquaint more people with CHILDHOOD EDUCATION is being carried out this year

by Sarah A. Marble, Chairman of the Circulation Committee. Attractive seasonal posters giving information concerning the Journal are sent to supervisors and to others who place them on the bulletin boards in the various school buildings. Is there one on the bulletin board of your building? Write to Sarah A. Marble, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C., and tell her how many of these posters you can use.

A NEW NEIGHBOR

The executive officers of *Child Welfare* magazine, the official organ of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, have been transferred from Philadelphia to Washington. They are now located on the sixth floor of the National Education Association building, just three floors above the A. C. E. office. We are happy to have these new neighbors at 1201 Sixteenth Street.

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND PARENTS

From California comes this letter: "I want to tell you how much I have enjoyed CHILDHOOD EDUCATION during the past year. The articles have been splendid and full of very helpful suggestions. A number of mothers have borrowed my copies and found them very instructive."

Are you lending YOUR copies of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION to PARENTS?

PACIFIC COAST NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

The third annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Nursery School Association will be held in the Biltmore Hotel, Los Angeles, California, November 26th and 27th, 1931. The Conference will consist of discussions of practical value along the lines of Nursery School procedure, visits to nursery schools, and exhibits of nursery school material, books, records, pictures, and children's clothing. Dr. Harriet E. O'Shea is president of the Association.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

Excerpts from the literature of education.—The authors of *An Introduction to the Literature of Education** have tried to meet a long felt need of beginning students in education as well as instructors in introductory courses in education. Their recent publication is a compilation of excerpts from the writings of leaders in the field of education. It is felt that by having the important and outstanding opinions of molders of educational thought in one book, that the student's time will be economized and that less effort will be spent in acquiring breadth of vision and understanding of educational problems.

In the introduction to the book the authors, who understand the difficulties of orienting the beginning student of education, state clearly that at Colorado State Teachers College two methods have been tried to meet this need. The method of utilizing two books as a basis for class work proved unsatisfactory because of the constant duplication of material. A study was made of this practice which showed that it was difficult to find a combination of texts that could be used together to bring satisfactory results. The other plan that was tried was to depend on extensive library assignments to acquaint the student with the thought and literature of education. This method proved extremely expensive because of the number of library copies needed to meet the needs of the student body. These, no doubt, are problems common to most teacher training institutions. In order to facilitate a more economical acquisition of current educational opinion the authors were inspired to compile *An Introduction to the Literature of Education* to be used in conjunction with their work entitled *An Introduction to Education*. It is their feeling that by using these two books a student will get a very comprehensive course in education and some of the

problems that have been indicated will be reduced.

The book is divided into five parts as follows: The Teacher, The Child, The Teaching Process, The American Public School and Education as a Field for Life. Each part contains a number of chapters which deal with different aspects of the larger subject. The excerpts which compose the larger part of the material in the book, except for brief chapter introductions or summaries, are selected from the writings of authorities on the subject. Space does not permit a detailed amount of the contents of each division of the book, so one or two typical examples will be cited. In the part dealing with the classroom teacher, one finds selections on the teacher herself, her philosophy, and her relation to the school and the community. The chapter on the teacher's philosophy contains opinions from the writing of W. H. Kilpatrick, Charles H. Judd, John Dewey, S. C. Parker, W. C. Bagley, Edward Thorndike and other eminent thinkers, many of whom differ widely in their educational beliefs.

This chapter is typical of the others in the book in that the writers are not concerned with inoculating beginning students with any one point of view. By careful selection of content they have endeavored to acquaint them with the beliefs of the best minds in the different fields, though at times such minds fundamentally disagree.

The section entitled The American Public School contains selections which give the student a comprehensive view of the historical development of the schools in this country. It also contains material on the organization and curriculum of the school system as well as a chapter on administration. The book is so arranged that after a view of education as a whole, the student is introduced to a final chapter entitled "Shall I be a Teacher?" Here again one finds excerpts from the writings of people whose interests center on a particular

*George W. Frazier and Winfield D. Armentrout, *An Introduction to the Literature of Education*. Chicago, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1931. Pp. xiv, 562.

division of the school from nursery school to college. This chapter also sets forth opportunities offered in such special fields as art, music, library science. The most specialized positions for which a student may prepare, as school principal, supervisor and superintendent, are adequately presented.

This book is recommended for introductory classes in education because of its fine organization, the care with which the selections that are included have been chosen, the fairness in presenting different opinions and the economical and effective way in which it gives a student an unbiased view of education as a whole.

MARY CAMERON,

Western Reserve University,
Cleveland, Ohio.

A symposium on child psychology.—The eleventh volume of the *International University Series on Psychology** is a collection of articles by various authors in the field of child psychology. Its purpose is set forth in a brief Preface by the editor. Despite the fact that the field of child psychology is almost as old as is that of experimental psychology, certain misconceptions of and unfortunate attitudes towards the former have sprung up due to ignorance. The editor therefore feels that a systematic presentation of the problems of child psychology will serve a valuable purpose in demonstrating the present accomplishments and future possibilities of research in this field. With this in view, a comprehensive survey is attempted, which will be useful to "students already acquainted with psychology and already expert in child psychology," thus avoiding the disadvantages of the highly specialized monograph or the highly popularized elementary text-book.

To review such a work is a task of no mean order. Outstanding contributors in the field have written their chapters (twenty-two in all) independently, and from their own particular points of view. Selecting the phases of child psychology that might best be included, must have given the editor a great deal of concern; and it would, accordingly, assist the reader if the criteria of selection had been presented. Indeed, the reviewer believes that the Preface could have been expanded, to advantage, to the proportions of an introductory article, in which the main points determining

the synthesis of what follows could be set forth. To some extent the statement of aims covers this. But it is felt that while the reader will obtain excellent insight into many of the problems of child psychology by careful study of the contributions severally, he will find it difficult to obtain any systematic appreciation of the field as a whole. It is true that each article represents, in a measure, a highly specialized branch of the subject. But no amount of specialization can afford to forego the co-ordinating influence of a knowledge of the general aspects. This, of course, in no way limits the value of the *Handbook* when made the basis of group discussion.

Turning to the contributions themselves, it is obviously impossible for each author to do himself justice within the limits of time and space imposed by a symposium of this kind. One does not anticipate anything decidedly new, if one is already familiar with the work of the writer in question. Neither is it fair to compare the work produced under these conditions and for the particular purpose pertaining thereto, with the original reports of the researches on which the present articles are based. Nevertheless, the authors have succeeded in grasping the aims set forth by the editor in a way that reflects both their own mastery in the particular aspect for which they were selected, and the efficiency with which so complex an editorial project was carried out.

The most difficult—and most important—section of the *Handbook* is undertaken by J. E. Anderson, whose treatment of "Methods of Child Psychology" (Chapter I) may be said to constitute another basis of unifying the succeeding contributions. Here we find a very timely emphasis on the need for comprehensive appreciation of the many techniques available, so that our researches may support a common aim, rather than do homage merely to a particular methodological refinement. In this the author stresses the distinction between technique and method, and shows the equivocality of the latter term in current literature. While realizing the difficulties involved, it is felt that this particular phase of the discussion could have been elaborated to advantage, in that it is fundamental. Far too little consideration is ordinarily given to it, if we may judge from publications to date. Yet only by so doing can we hope to arrive at a degree

*Carl Murchison, Editor. *A Handbook of Child Psychology*. Worcester, Mass., Clark University Press, 1931. Pp. xii, 711. \$5.00.

of co-ordination conducive to co-operative advance rather than the non-productive type of controversy, and to realize the particular phases of study that are receiving too little notice. Clarification of the term "method" necessarily involves a deeper understanding of aims. These aims are bound up with an explicit formulation of the limits of the field to which they pertain; and many of our controversial battles are meaningless and wasteful since they are fought by parties who have set distinctly different limits on their particular field of study. Furthermore the aims thus interpreted grow out of a philosophy of child development. They clarify that philosophy and are in turn illuminated by it. Hence methodological discussions lead us back to philosophical considerations. It is in consequence of this that the more comprehensive type of Mental Hygiene approaches to Child Development might well find greater emphasis in a book of the type here under review, than is actually the case.

In the same setting we feel the need of further differentiating the psychological aspects of method, from those of philosophy; for this reveals the distinction between behavior concepts, with their broad, ethical implications, or with their metaphysical assumptions, and truly psychological, scientific terms—refined and definite. That psychology has confused the issue here indicated is obvious, even in the work of almost any one particular author. Much more obvious, therefore, does this fact become, when we read the contributions of different writers in the same book. Hence, supposedly identical terms have entirely different connotations. The solution seems to be that already advocated, namely, a careful clarification of the term "method" in such a way that the relationships between the various approaches are seen. These relationships themselves then form a legitimate field of study; and a unification of the field of Child Development becomes more possible through the formulation of concepts based on an increasing knowledge of psychological *processes*—concepts stripped of their philosophic meanings, so that distinctions are no longer made on philosophic grounds (as, e.g. in current misuse of the terms "perception," and "thinking").

It is impossible to give separate consideration here to the remaining articles of the book.

The range is very great, and a limitless number of questions arise out of a study of each aspect treated. In this the salient contribution of the *Handbook* is clearly revealed; for even if it may in some respects confuse the reader, it is essentially stimulating. And if it leads to a greater enthusiasm in enquiry, rather than to an uncritical acceptance of, or dogmatic adherence to, any one narrow point of view, it will serve a much-desired purpose. It is very likely to do this, since it is written at the level of the advanced student, rather than at that which intrigues the untrained mind.

W. LINE,
Department of Psychology,
University of Toronto.

Case material in supervision.—Some months ago we reviewed in this journal a book entitled *How To Supervise*, in which the author, George C. Kyte, dealt in practical fashion with all of the generally recognized phases of school supervision. In a recent small volume Professor Kyte has, in the words of the editor, "set up a progressive series of thirty-three typical problems in school supervision, supplied the data and the references necessary to their solution, and has shown instructors how to use the problem most effectively with classes in school supervision" (p. V). The author selected his problems from a mass of material gathered from his own and others' experiences in filling supervisory positions and from the literature on the supervision of instruction. Each of the thirty-three problems was chosen finally because: "1. It is typical of problems and activities which frequently occur in the experiences of supervisory officers. 2. It is an integral part of the series of essential experiences which contribute to a well-rounded training in the field of elementary school supervision. 3. It furnishes the necessary experiences involving intensive study and functional activity which contribute to the acquisition of knowledge of and skill in supervisory technique" (p. viii).

A number of the problems have to do with the organization of supervision and the duties of supervisory officers. Several others are concerned with the supervision of different types of teaching and learning and with individual and group conferences. There are also problems related to course-of-study and program-making and to the supervision of new, weak and superior teachers.

In the treatment of each of these several problems there is presented first a clear and definite statement of the situation or case in which the problem is involved. (In the supervision of types of teaching this statement takes the form in each case of a stenographic report of a lesson.) Next in a paragraph concerning the nature of the problem, and third, directions for the solution of the problem are given, followed by a list of selected references from which the student may get help needed in solving the problem. Problem Ten, *Planning for Supervision*, quoted verbatim, will make clear to the reader the author's method:

"Statement of the Problem. Each supervisory officer must make careful and thorough plans for carrying on the work of supervision, if he is to render the type of educational service which should be expected of him. The procedure followed in making plans for supervision will be about the same for all persons, the specific phases of planning being somewhat different for each type of supervisory officer.

"Nature of the Problem. The purposes served by this problem include leading the student to understand and appreciate the need for a careful study of educational situations, to grasp the scope of data essential to acquiring a sound basis for planning, and to study the various phases of general planning in supervision. The steps to be worked out will show the place of an educational philosophy in supervisory planning, the nature of

data to be utilized, and the need for budgeting each supervisors' time so that he works most efficiently.

"Solution of the Problem. In order to obtain the various types of supervisory experiences in general planning, determine the following: 1. What part should a philosophy of education play in planning for supervision? 2. What data should be accumulated regarding: (a) the community and the parents of the children; (b) the pupils; (c) the school plant and its equipment; (d) the teaching staff; (e) the courses of study in use, and (f) the supervisory staff? 3. Show ways in which each type of data should be used in supervisory planning. 4. How should the school day of each supervisory officer be budgeted?"

This little book should prove to be particularly useful as a means of giving the student who is preparing for supervision some practice in planning effective ways and means of dealing with problems and meeting situations similar to those with which he will be confronted when he goes out into the field. It is, in fact, "a case-book or problem-text" to be used in connection with a general text book in the supervision of instruction such as those of Burton, Barr and Burton and the author of the book itself. Doubtless it will be used generously by supervisory officers already in the field.

ALICE TEMPLE.

University of Chicago.



(Continued from page 193)

cent (92.4%) of the children made relevant answers which shows, however, different degrees of egocentricism. Further study according to age, sex and situation is needed.

11. Another indication of emotional maturity is shown in the child's waiting for an answer, which occurred in 77.5% of cases. This should be analyzed according to age and sex.
12. Analysis of the tense of the verb used in questions shows the present tense appears in 72.93% of ques-

tions. This is another interesting indication of the opportunist, individualistic tendencies of early childhood.

It may be that analysis of the remaining 7,000 questions may throw some light on the questions raised by this tentative analysis. Analysis of the content of the questions to check Piaget's categories and to develop categories less formal in nature is the next step. Carefully controlled studies should be made of the spontaneous questions of public school children.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

In *THE TEACHERS' JOURNAL AND ABSTRACT* for September is printed the Commencement address made by Dr. Ned H. Dearborn at the Colorado State Teachers' College, August, 1931. It is entitled *Whither Education?* and makes some interesting predictions. A visit paid some years ago to the Hermitage leads him to contrast the schools of Andrew Jackson's day with those a hundred and fifty years later which he attended, and then to move on to the present day schools, with some interesting descriptions of these different stages. Then he turns to look ahead for fifty years and believes the present "costly and elaborate school buildings of today will be as much out of date then as the little red school house is today." His picture of what will probably be found then is suggestive. "We will have great civic and educational centers." Here he thinks "all forms of education for young and old will be found or will have their origin. There will be a few large rooms seating from five hundred to one thousand students in which the mechanical routine drill work of systematic education will be handled by mechanical devices. The three-dimensional, color and sound motion pictures together with the radio will provide the instruction in this aspect of education. Mechanical devices will check the errors of individual pupils, suggest remedial measures, and assist in their application. By these means the routine memorization of facts that are often referred to as the tools of learning will be done much more effectively and at an enormous saving of time." Will this appeal to the average teacher or will she see no place for her activities in life—one wonders. The important things for which the students are thus freed he lists as "intellectual powers, the interpretation of life, the formulation of ideals in terms of high ethical standards of conduct, the development of desirable habits and attitudes and the development of aesthetic appreciations." He places art exhibits, museum exhibits, and library collections as es-

sential parts of such educational centers. "Public education as we now know it will be greatly expanded, extended, and deepened and it will be coordinated with the work of other social agencies." He believes this because he sees that "A social philosophy contains the only logical explanation of modern western civilization." He sees "social coordination, organization, order and control as essential for social progress." And as to why the teaching profession should be alert to these needs he says "If we are to take our part intelligently as members of a potentially great profession we must be sensitive to these changes in life about us. We must be ready to modify our educational work accordingly. In short, we must be professionally alert. We can never afford to pause in our efforts toward professional improvement. All this calls for imagination, persistence, courage, adaptability and intellectual integrity."

In the same magazine there is a discussion on *Who Makes the Curriculum?* by Dr. L. Thomas Hopkins of Teachers' College, Columbia University. He first lists the four groups which are today engaged in this activity as follows: "first, national committees; second, individual experts; third, school systems; fourth, individual teachers." He then discusses the characteristics, advantages and limitations of each of these four. He believes that in evaluating their work the following questions should be asked. 1. "What is the underlying philosophy of education? 2. What is the philosophy of curriculum construction of the school system concerned? 3. Is this school system looking forward or back? He concludes—"The forward looking school system must place increasing dependence upon curriculum making within its own system under the leadership of individuals trained in the construction of prepared-in-advance courses of study and in the wise guidance and direction of teachers to the end that they may assume more and more the responsibilities

placed upon them by an integrated educational program."

In the October issue of *THE NEW ERA* Carleton E. Washburne has an article called *Whither Education?* in which he presents his conclusions from a study of educational ideals in different countries which he has made by questions and discussions with national leaders. He summarizes opinions from Japan and Russia, China, Poland, India, Germany, Turkey, and Arabia, as well as from our own country. The questions to which he sought answers are 1. "Do you want to perfect and perpetuate your present type of society; or do you want to create a new, definitely preconceived social, political and economic organization; or do you wish rather to develop each individual fully without any attempt to predetermine social structure? 2. When there is a conflict between the demands of the state and the profound personal convictions of the individual, would you so educate your children that they will follow their conscience or that they will follow the nation's demands? 3. Should we educate our children to place the welfare of their own country first, or if necessary to sacrifice their country's apparent advantage for the welfare of the world community of nations? 4. Should children in the schools be allowed to discuss any question, however contentious? If so, should the teacher try to lead them toward a particular point of view? Toward what point of view: his personal one or the official one of the state? 5. Should the program of the school be organized primarily in terms of a scientific study of the demands of adult society or should it center principally round the interest and activities of the developing child? 6, and last, Is it a legitimate and important function of education to approach the emotional life of a child, to attempt to help him resolve those inner conflicts which in their extreme form eventuate in neuroses and psychoses, and which even in their more common forms result in unhappiness and maladjustment to life?" These questions are quoted in full because they seem extremely interesting and full of suggestion for discussion on many different levels. We may make some pretty safe guesses, from our general information, of the opinions from different countries. We have space but for a part of the author's own conclusions, as follows: "It seems to me that an attempt to fit the individual into a preconceived social mould is to some extent neces-

sary and desirable. But if the mould is too rigid, the attempt is dangerous. We must cultivate in our children such farsightedness that they realize that their personal welfare is inextricably bound up with that of the larger group to which they belong, and that a seeming personal advantage at the expense of the group is an illusion." This principle is carried further to its application of a "nation as an organic part of the greater whole." Further he says, "Freedom of discussion there should be." He believes that a scientific spirit will insure facts rather than prejudices as a basis for it. Further, "In building a program we again need great flexibility but must not have structurelessness." And finally, "Can we not unite in an attempt to achieve an education which recognizes the importance to the individual of the fullest social cooperation, and the importance to the life and growth of society of free thinking, free acting, personally integrated individuals?"

In the same journal is an article by Dr. Alfred Adler of Vienna on *How We Have Become What We Are*. A summary gives us three points which Dr. Adler maintains "1. The first five years of life determine your basic character. 2. You are your own masterpiece, your style is as recognizable as that of Bach. 3. Through Individual Psychology you can recognize your basic pattern and consciously improve upon it." Perhaps we shall find here some helpful ideas for the supervisor who often strives in vain for desirable changes. He says, "We Individual Psychologists do not regard a human being as an isolated organism. We watch how, from the first day onwards, man develops a power of self-adaptation which is to help him overcome the difficulties of life and produce a masterpiece of his own creating."

The *JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY* for September has an article by C. Spearman on *Our Need of Some Science in Place of the Word "Intelligence"* which the author tells us in his conclusion is a plea "that the current procedure of testing 'intelligence' needs to be aroused from its self-complacent slumber." He believes that the practice has been borrowed from a theory and the theory itself left behind, so that "a sacrifice was made of precision; of meaningfulness; and above all, of an immense amount of observable facts. This disastrous situation has been largely masked, but at the same time

really aggravated, by usurping the pretentious and well-nigh fraudulent title of 'intelligence.' The article gives in detail his reasons for these conclusions.

In the same journal Anna Cohen and Nathan Altrowitz call attention to Falsification of Age: A Factor in Child Guidance. Giving first a case study where many of the troubles of a difficult case were traceable directly to his being considered three years older than he actually was, the authors give several conclusions. They believe that falsification of age "forces the child into situations that he is too young to meet." They comment particularly upon its effect on his play life. Also the child has to adapt to two standards of conduct, that of his home and that of the school, creating a conflict which is very difficult for him to solve. Then again it changes his social status without the possibility of adequate preparation. It is probable that the underlying motive which leads parents to falsification of age is a desire for what seems to them the good of their children. This case as reported is an illustration of the exactly opposite result.

In EDUCATIONAL METHOD for October Benjamin C. Gruenberg writes on Educational Exploration of Errors. His purpose is to show how errors may be utilized in education. That this is possible he assures us in saying "The ability to learn, which is one of the outstanding traits of the species, rests directly upon the ability to make mistakes." Also, "Learning is made both possible and necessary because the primary and spontaneous responses of human beings are inadequate for the satisfactory meeting of situations." This is well recognized in all our behaviour. We know that "adjustment is something to be progressively

attained, and that it is attained through the so-called trial-and-error process. He points out that since this is so "we must expect errors, inaccuracies, blunders, misunderstandings, as a matter of course." Humor and patience are the qualities which he believes the teacher should exhibit in the face of errors, and recognizes that it is easier to be patient and amused by the blunders that occur in other situations than the particular ones which involve one's self. He classifies several hundred errors which have been made by children into seven main groups as follows: "1. similarity of words; 2, false inferences; 3, crossed wires; 4, divergent background; 5, literal mindedness; 6, rhetorical difficulties; 7, neuroses and mixed motives." He discusses each of these types with illustrations and analyses, and he urges that teachers study blunders of children in this fashion. If they are unable to be detached in regard to the blunders of their own children then they should study those made in other groups for he believes that such a study "may do more than reveal the sources of particular errors and point to a prevention of their repetition. It may bring us to look with more detachment upon the passing show, and to accept the making of mistakes as a normal and permanent part of human behavior. It may enable us to meet blunders without reproach and so liberate the children, and others with whom we have to deal, from the constant fear and self-deprecation which reproach always induces, where it does not evoke defiance." The entire article is most illuminating and an acceptance of its philosophy would not only benefit the child but would ease the strain which many a teacher feels—help her as he says to "be serious as her calling and responsibilities demand, without being solemn."



Little fairy snowflakes dancing in the flue;
Old Mr. Santa Claus, what is keeping you?
Twilight and firelight shadows come and go,
Merry chimes of sleigh bells twinkling through the snow;
Mother knitting stockings (pussy's got the ball!)—
Don't you think Winter's pleasantest of all?

"*Marjorie's Almanac*," by THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

The Movies as Literature—Books are not the only possible channel whereby the child may make his acquaintance with literature. Picture may give it to him as well as symbol.

In *Children and Movies** Mrs. Mitchell presents data on the movie experiences of 10,000 children. The study is comprehensive, careful, concise and well-organized, as well as being written up in most interesting, vigorous style.

"Much effort and time are spent in recommending the proper books to children. Public libraries and book-stores regularly issue lists of books especially suited to juvenile tastes. 'Book Week For Children' is observed once a year But every week is movie week for children as far as attendance is concerned, and although movies touch the life of the average child more frequently than do books, there is no concerted effort made by schools or libraries to recommend the proper films for children. Perhaps this is due to the fact that there are so few motion pictures that might be recommended for children Nor will there be until there is a wide-spread demand for the production of motion pictures especially for children."

The 10,000 children in this study represent three groups—delinquents in correctional institutions, Scouts (both Boy and Girl) and public school children who were not Scouts. The data were gathered by means of two written quizzes. The ages covered were from the fifth grade through high school. Careful checks were made to determine the reliability of the answers.

Of the 10,052 children only 168 reported that they did not go to the movies at all.

The majority of all the children attended the movies once or twice every week; but almost half the delinquent group reported going as often as three to seven times a week, while 20 per cent of the delinquents went five to seven

times a week. "I *must* have my movies," said one small girl. "The old-fashioned story-hour has given way to the modern movie-hour, a bit reluctantly, a bit relieved. The former after-dinner cry of 'Mother, tell us a story,' is growing faint amid the din of 'Mother, may we go to the movies!'"

The study revealed that children will go to any lengths to get the price of movie admission, even to the extent of appropriating their lunch money, of begging or stealing. Said one little boy, "Movies make my head ache because I chew gum so hard when I get excited." For such joy and such excitement 44 per cent of the grade school boys and 55 per cent of the delinquent boys were willing to work to earn their tickets.

Movies, in fact, are called by the author the "new back-yard." Although most of the children preferred out-door activities, such as football and hiking, to movies, these opportunities are open to few city children, especially of the delinquent group, and they go to movies instead. When asked, among other interests, which they preferred, reading or going to the movies, the following per cents of children preferred movies:

High school boys.....	48.0
Grade school boys.....	57.7
High school girls.....	35.7
Grade school girls.....	52.7
Girl Scouts	29.9
Delinquent girls.....	62.7
Boy Scouts	48.5
Delinquent boys.....	68.0

"The child is surrounded by books But the movie—it is even closer to the children than books, for it is aggressively so. It makes itself heard, seen, felt (it) calls on every corner and the children answer." Children's reading consists of books appropriate to children's tastes and comprehension, while the movies almost invariably have been made for adult entertainment. "The children's

* Mitchell, Alice Miller. *Children and Movies*. Chicago. University of Chicago Press (c. 1929). Pp. xxiv, 181.

shelf in the 'movie library' is strangely empty."

When the children's choices in movies were analysed, it was found that the boys liked best, in order, the following: western, adventure, comedy, mystery, and historical. The girls liked best: romances, comedy, western, tragedy, mystery. But, adds the author "whether movies are old or new, superproductions or mediocre films, they all have an audience The children think that every movie is for them.

"Everywhere, all about, is the movie, flashing shadows of life on a screen, shadows which youth thinks are real because they tell him what he wants to know." But "almost all children who attend movies—and almost all children do attend movies—almost always are exposed to screen experiences of life that are far beyond their years.

"The bud torn open is neither a bud nor a blossom, for it is part of both and not all of either But this need not be. The bud need not open until maturity. The movie need not portray to the children things that are not of and for the children.

"The movie is the world's greatest story-book; filled with life's tales, it is for all. But the juvenile edition is not yet off the press."

Measuring Causes of Children's Behavior Difficulties.—A test has just been developed at the Teachers' College of Columbia University¹ which will probably have increasingly extended use, and be of increasing service to the task of teacher and parent. Its purpose is to measure, not intelligence or school achievement, but the degree to which the child is adjusted to his environment. Maladjustment, which in this study is considered to have, as one of its major elements, a felt contrast between the real situation and the desired one, is a problem which heretofore has come very little to the attention of the mental test constructors.

The test itself is quite an original piece of work, although so far as possible it incorporates some suggestions from the little work which has previously been done in the field. It is in six parts, each based on the technique of interviewing, the child using paper and pencil to check his responses. It takes about forty minutes to give, and can be used as an individual test, or, for children above the age of ten, as a group test. It is to serve as tool for clinician or school psychologist for further understanding of children referred as problems, or as a means of detecting those children

who need especial help. It is applicable to children from 9 to 13 years.

Test Number One is devised to find out the child's desires and dreams: "Suppose that just by wishing you could change yourself into any sort of person. Which of these people would you wish to be?"

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| (a) . . . a housewife | (i) . . . a princess |
| (b) . . . a teacher | (j) . . . an inventor |
| (c) . . . a movie star | (k) . . . a policeman |

This sample of Test One illustrates the kind of data obtained.

Test Number Two is illustrated by the following:

"Suppose you could have just three of the wishes below, which would you want to come true?"

- | |
|--|
| (a) . . . to be stronger than I am now. |
| (b) . . . to have the boys and girls like me better. |
| (c) . . . to get along better with my father and mother. |
| (d) . . . to be brighter than I am now. |
| (e) . . . to play games better. |
| (f) . . . to have a different father and mother. |
| (g) . . . to be a boy (if you are a girl). |
| (h) . . . to be a girl (if you are a boy). |
| (i) . . . to be bigger than I am now. |
| (j) . . . to have more money to spend. |

Test Number Three is an indirect way of asking the child what people have the most emotional values for him. "Suppose you were going away to live on a desert island, and could only take three people with you. Write here the names of the three people you would choose:

1.
2.
3.

Test Number Four has the child rate first himself, and then his ideal, as to certain traits and qualities. This test has two different forms, one for boys and one for girls. A sample of the test for boys reads:

1. Peter is a big, strong boy who can beat any of the other boys in a fight.

Am I just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : No:

Do I wish to be just like him?

¹Rogers, Carl R. *Measuring Personality Adjustment in Children Nine to Thirteen Years of Age*. Columbia University Teachers' College Contributions to Education, No. 459, 1931. Pp. V + 107.

- Yes: : : : : : : : No:
 2. George likes to read. He has read all the books he can get about cow-boys, Indians, and soldiers.

Am I just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

Do I wish to be just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

3. Ed is the best ball player in school.

Am I just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

Do I wish to be just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

6. Joe is a leader. All the fellows do what he tells them.

Am I just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

Do I wish to be just like him?

Yes: : : : : : : : No:

17. Which of these boys would your mother like best? Write his name here.....

.....

This test is designed to discover discrepancies of which the child is acutely conscious. The questions cover several areas. One kind of question seeks to reveal feelings of personal inadequacy, such as lack of brains, of beauty, of strength, and of school achievement. Another set deals with social discrepancies, such as lack of leadership, of social skills, and of friends. Some inquire into daydreaming and family relationships.

Test Number Five resembles an interview with a child. It asks direct questions in such form that the child can answer them by simply checking the paper. Some examples are:

1. How well can you play ball?
 (a)....can't play ball at all.
 (b)....can play a little bit.
 (c)....can play pretty well.
 (d)....best player in my class.
2. How many friends would you like to have?
 (a)....none.
 (b)....one or two.
 (c)....a few good friends.
 (d)....many friends.
 (e)....hundreds of friends.
8. How well do your father and mother like you?
 (a)....I am the one they like best of all.
 (b)....They like me second best.
 (c)....They like all my brothers and sisters better than they like me.

- (d)....They like me well enough, but not any better than my brothers and sisters.

17. Do you wear good clothes to school?

(a)....I don't have any nice clothes.

(b)....My clothes are nice enough.

(c)....I have very good clothes.

Test Number Six asks the child to rate each member of his family, and including his best girl friend and his best boy friend, in the order of his preference.

It can be seen that the test as a whole attempts to measure gaps in the child's social adjustments, lacks in his family relationships which make him unhappy, discrepancies between real and desired achievement, in short the major areas where maladjustments in childhood are most likely to occur (with the exceptions of sex adjustments which it was thought best to omit from this study.)

Having constructed a test, the next step by the author was to compare the scores on the test obtained by a group of 52 clinic children with the scores of these same children when rated on a rating scale by the clinicians who knew them. In other words the author tried to prove whether or not the test really measured what it was meant to measure. It was found that there was a correlation of .48 between the children's total scores and the clinicians' ratings as to the children's general adjustment. It was found that although the correlation between the test scores and the ratings was not high, the agreement was nearly as close as that between the raters themselves. Since the experts disagreed among themselves on the rating the author concludes that "it is perhaps not too much to say, in the light of the above data, that the Test of Personality Adjustment gives diagnostic scores which are as valid as a rating made by a clinician who knows the case the use of the test is not as valuable as consultation with a trained psychiatrist or psychologist, since the test has no means of estimating or of calling attention to the fine points of a child's maladjustment. Neither does it have much to say with regard to specific causes of unhappiness. In making a summarized judgment of a child's case, however, the test appears to be as valid as the summarized judgment of a trained worker."

The author gave the same group the test after an interval of a month to find out the reliability of the test—that is, the consistency

of the scores made by the same children on two different occasions. It was found that the self correlation thus attained was .72.

Another index of the validity of the test lies in the fact that of the children studied those who were known to present serious problems of maladjustment made much higher maladjustment scores on the test than did the children who were known to be normally well adjusted. On the other hand Dr. Rogers found that the average scores for the school children he tested (84 in number) differed very little from the average scores of children referred to the Institute for Child Guidance. In other words, there was a large amount of maladjustment found among the so-called normal group who had not been considered as a clinic problem. "This fact points to the conclusion that the number of maladjusted children in our schools is very great." The use of the test in this group of school children also showed that the test tended to select as maladjusted children the same ones who had been selected by their teachers as their most difficult problem cases, the accuracy of its selection being even greater in the case of boys than of girls. Out of sixteen boys and girls considered to be problems by their teachers and school principal only one was entirely missed by the test.

Not only did the test yield diagnostic scores but much more for it drew forth particular responses which in many cases revealed causes of the child's discontent. For example, it was found that with this kind of test the shy, protective child found easy opportunity for self-expression.

The author suggests that the test has various uses. It is useful to the school psychologist who wishes to find the child's own attitude toward his situation when he is a misfit in school. Or, when the child's school achievement is far below his mental capacity the test may reveal discords and maladjustments in his social relations which may account for his lack of effort. The test is also useful in showing up serious withdrawal problems among children whose behavior is so model in school that they may be not recognized by their teachers. The use of the test for child guidance clinic is obvious, especially in separating the child who has a true psychological difficulty from one whose problem is chiefly the problem of living in a given social area.

The author freely admits that the test is at present short of the standards of reliability

and validity obtained by tests in older fields of psychological measurement. However it seems evident that this test gives promise of practical use and future development. We are led to agree with the author "if it helps to reveal the 'tragic maladjustments which so frequently spoil a child's future, if it aids in giving that clearer understanding of children's problems out of which wiser treatment will come, then it has eminently achieved its purpose."

An Explanation for Truancy.—A study⁵ has recently been made of one hundred and ten children who as truants were presented in court in one of the districts of the city of New York. The age range was from seven to thirteen years inclusive. When the case was considered at court each child was given a psychological, physical and psychiatric examination.

The data revealed that the I. Q. range on the Stanford-Binet examination was from fifty-three to one hundred and three, with a median I. Q. of seventy-three. Forty-nine of the children had I. Q.'s between sixty-five and seventy-five.

Of the one hundred and ten truants only thirty-three had been promoted regularly. Seventy-two were retarded from one to seven terms with a median retardation of two terms. Ninety-seven of the truants found the reading of their grades too hard for them. They were retarded in reading attainment from one to seven terms, having a median retardation of three terms. When a comparison was made between the mental age and the reading grade of the truants it was found that one hundred of the children were reading as well as they should when their mental age was considered, and eighty-eight were reading from one to seven terms above expectation with a median reading acceleration of two terms. "The explanation for truancy seems evident. No wonder the truant does not find school work interesting. The work of his grade is too difficult. Even with maximum effort doing two terms better than could be expected of him he still cannot keep up with the others and meets only discouragement. Truancy is his escape from such an embarrassing and unpleasant situation."

⁵McElwee, Edna Willis. *A Study of Truants and Retardation.* Journal of Juvenile Research, Vol. 15, 1931. Pp. 209-214.

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